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The Week

FEW Americans can fail to be moved by the eloquence of M. Viviani at the tomb of Washington. We are wont to be a little ashamed of our poverty when we think of the Westminster Abbeys, the Panthéons, of older nations, but our hearts may well beat faster at the proud consciousness that none of the Powers beside whom we are ranged, neither England nor France, Belgium nor Russia, is enriched with a shrine so precious to the world as that at which the representatives of the Old World paid homage on Sunday. "Washington" needs no translation into alien tongues. Like the music of the Marseillaise, it is a universal clarion for "liberty." Yet the most significant feature of the ceremony will not be dwelt upon. The tribute of a British statesman to the Britisher who renounced his allegiance and led his fellows in successful revolt against the British Crown is less impressive than the reverent gesture of a Marshal of France because it is less novel. We see nothing to be surprised at in the proclamation of a Governor who calls for the celebration of Lafayette Day, "in memory of the illustrious soldier who fought with Washington for the independence of America" —fought, that is, with one of our "Allies" against another of them.

THE large majorities by which both House and Senate passed the Army bill on Saturday were owing to two causes. One was that the measure was urged by the Administration. And what a President asks in war time he is almost sure to get. But in addition to this, there was plainly another reason why the opposition to the selective draft mustered so small a vote. The country, and its representatives in Congress, did not wish even to appear to be holding anything back. It desired to let it be known that the full energy of the United States was available against the German Government. If it should be necessary, a year from now, to have ready an army of 1,500,000 or 2,000,000, the feeling was that no step should be omitted to make sure that we got the men. Enacting a bill does not create an army by fiat. What has been done is to get ready for possibilities a long way ahead. It is only a form of ultimate preparation which Congress has authorized. It will come into play, if at all, only as a necessity of the war, and for its duration alone. Some complacent militarists are saying that, whether or not conscription shall be utilized within the next year, anyhow we now have the system established for the long future. But they ought to read the terms of the bill itself, which declares that "those drafted shall be required to serve *for the period of the existing emergency,* unless sooner discharged." The whole question of compulsory and universal military service, as the rule and law of American life, Americans are left free to pass upon as they please after the war is over.

HERR HELFFERICH'S estimate of 1,000,000 tons as the British submarine losses for the months of February and March does not agree with the official figures from British sources, in so far as these may be gathered from the method of announcing losses by ships instead of tonnage, but it is just about the rate that has been assumed in this country in discussions of the submarine warfare. If this rate of destruction is continued for a year without counter-measures in the way of new shipbuilding and anti-U-boat warfare, England's situation will be serious. But Herr Helfferich does not quite venture to exhort his countrymen to patience stretching over a year. "In these decisive weeks," he says, though plainly in the course of weeks there can be no decision even by his own figures. If Lloyd George's intimation of 2,000,000 new tons in English shipping this year is not empty boasting, and there is no reason why in these serious times he should be holding out false hopes to the British people, and if American shipbuilding falls into its stride, there is every prospect that two-thirds of the lost ships this year will be replaced. In the last emergency England may divert shipping from military purposes, which now absorb more than half her merchant fleet. It would mean weakening the Allied effort on land, but it would nullify German predictions of a swift decision on sea.

DR. HELFFERICH boldly says that it is altogether probable that America's wooden ships will not emerge to save Great Britain till there is nothing to save. Undoubtedly the obstacles to building hundreds of ships within the year are great, but the Federal Shipping Board is by its energy and expedition giving the best possible reason for believing that they will be overcome. It has within the fortnight obtained the services of Goethals, moved towards incorporation of the needed company for mobilization of shipyards, and let its first contract to a corporation of New York. Other contracts are to follow rapidly. Lord Lytton announced for the British Admiralty last week that the first standardized English ships would be ready in July, and vessels would be launched steadily thereafter. It is expected that the company which has obtained the first Government contract here will lay the first keels by June 1, will have the first ships ready to take the water by September 1, and ready for cargo October 15, and that it will turn out a 3,000-ton vessel every ten days. On all our coasts there are yards now building wooden ships on private contract; but the aggregate number is small beside the projected total of 1,000 ships in fourteen or sixteen months, and it is everywhere being pointed out that to execute the Government programme will require an immense and immediate effort in marshalling labor, collecting materials, and creating new yards. Hardly less than 150,000 men will be needed; the wood for frames must be of special quality and specially treated; crews will have to be found, and the existing yards, busy as many are with steel ships, will by no means suffice. We must expect from the Shipping Board and Gen. Goethals in the next few months such hurried and yet careful and steady effort as shall write an unexampled page in American industry.

TO grasp, in some measure, the meaning of the desperate German resistance in the fighting east of Arras, it is

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necessary to go back once more to the professed purpose of the great German retirement of March. This was to nullify the Allied preparations for a great offensive. By falling back between Arras and the Aisne, and laying waste the evacuated zone, Hindenburg was supposed to have won at the very least a respite of several months before the Allies could hit out again. If there was no retreat north of Arras and east of Vailly, on the Aisne, the plain inference was that beyond these points the Germans had no expectation or no fear of an attack. Yet within a month of the commencement of the German retreat the British, on April 9, struck at and broke the German line from Arras to Lens, winning their most notable success of the war in the west. Just a week later Nivelle delivered his attack between Vailly and Rheims, and while his success, in its immediate results, was not so striking as Sir Douglas Haig's, it was more than enough to prove the emptiness of the Germans' boast that they gave way only where they chose to give way and could hold where they so decided. More than that, the two offences, British and French, showed that the Allied strength was not monopolized by the Somme front from which the Germans had retired.

BUT there was a second disappointment in store for the German army. Granted that the British north of Arras had made an effort of which Hindenburg thought them incapable, it might still be argued that the British assault of the week of April 9 would spend itself in a few days, like all previous Allied attempts. Instead, we had on April 23, a fortnight after the opening of the battle of Arras and a week after Nivelle's attack, the beginning of a second British assault. It was on a narrower front than the first drive, and it scored an advance of only a mile and a half; but its significance was in the fact that the British army was not exhausted by its effort of a fortnight before, that the Germans now had to face a sustained battle, an attack in waves which might continue indefinitely. The consolation held forth to the German people that the masterly retirement from the Somme had reduced the Allies to impotence was belied. But more than that. The second British attempt showed plainly that the British, far from exhausted, were prepared to tackle the much-advertised and impregnable Hindenburg trenches. The bitter fighting now in progress around Monchy and Gavrelle is a struggle for the control of the heavy gun-positions from which the British can proceed to batter the new lines of the German defence. Whether or not the so-called Wotan line between Drocourt and Queant is uncompleted, the fact stands out that six weeks after the beginning of the German retirement, which was to keep the Allies idle for many months, their new line is under tremendous pressure.

THE first purpose of the commission which we are sending to Russia under the leadership of Mr. Root is to give concrete expression to the vast sympathy and hope with which American democracy is watching the efforts of the Russian people to keep and consolidate the liberties they have won for themselves, and the promise they hold out for the world. Any body of representative Americans would be capable of delivering this message. But if American sympathy is to be supplemented by effective assistance to the new régime in Russia, there is need for wide knowledge, experience, and judgment on the part of the men who are to study the problem of how we can best help a great nation beset with the tremendous problems of revolution and war. For this work Mr. Root's qualifications need hardly be discussed. His mission is a double one. He must not only interpret this country to the Russian people, but he must supply the information on the basis of which our Government can best serve the cause of Russian democracy. Granted a fundamental agreement with the ideals of the new republic, such as Mr. Root expressed in his admirable speech of last Thursday before the Society of International Law, it needs the eye of the trained observer to distinguish the realities and possibilities of the difficult Russian problem.

MOST Americans learned for the first time from the Petrograd dispatches of the case of the man Mooney, sentenced to death this month in California for the crime of killing marchers in the San Francisco preparedness parade by throwing a bomb. The Russian anarchists who made hostile demonstrations against the American Embassy in Petrograd cried out that a fellow-Socialist, Mooney, had been unjustly executed in the United States. As a matter of fact, a motion for a new trial for him is pending, and, from all that we can learn, he ought to have it. In this opinion we are little moved by the too violent accusations of labor organizations. They charge many incredible things; but the essential fact is that the evidence against Mooney was purely circumstantial, and that it is now pretty clear that some of the witnesses who testified to suspicious circumstances committed perjury. This is plainly the present belief of the judge at the trial, who said last week that the case ought to be referred back to the court. Mooney may be the worst villain unhanged, but if his life was sworn away he is as much entitled to have the truth shown, and to enjoy all his legal rights, as if he were the purest saint that ever lived.

PREJUDICED and false reports concerning Germans in Mexico are nailed with vigor by the *Mexican Review*, published in Washington under the auspices of the Mexican Government, in its May issue. The mendacious figures reported concerning German immigration into Mexico are easily riddled; it is shown that between 150 and 200 Germans have crossed the border in three months, and that enumeration of Germans in Tampico reveals just thirty who are newcomers. "So far from there being . . . large numbers of German officers in the Mexican army, there are none. There are perhaps a half-dozen men of German parentage . . . natives of Mexico and Mexican citizens in one branch or another of the army, but these have been there since the commencement of the revolution." As for reports that a German bank has been permitted to continue business, while British, French, and other institutions were interfered with, it is explained that the banks proceeded against (Mexican among others) were those which had failed to comply with an order regarding currency redemption, and that Canadian, French, and American banks are transacting business as well as the German.

FROM many quarters come reports of an imminent breakdown of industry. Yesterday it was the coal mines which were going to be so hampered by lack of labor and transportation that their production would fall far below normal, and curtail all other business. This is in the face of wage agreements in both bituminous and anthracite, which

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are unprecedented for their promptness and cordiality. Just now comes the report that the maintenance of the coal supply has been assured by an agreement between the producers, workers, and the Council of National Defence. Why should we have all this calamity-howling? That war has produced many new conditions which will cause a great departure from normal, is a commonplace. And that we must be roused to the necessity of adjusting ourselves to the novel may excuse some of the current exaggeration. There will no doubt be shortages here and there. But they will not be calamitous. To shout so loudly before we are hit is to show small faith in the common-sense ability of the country to solve the problems which confront it. We are not going into national bankruptcy because of a declaration of war.

AGRARIAN disturbances are the least of the perils the new Russian régime has to face. It would be a miracle if the overthrow of Czarism, with the knowledge that a redistribution of lands would follow upon the successful establishment of revolutionary government, did not give rise to peasant movements here and there for anticipating action by the Constituent Assembly or the Duma. The peasants of the provinces of Saratoff and Tamboff, on the Volga, from which the disturbances have been reported, have been from the first Liberal movements of 1905 of an exceptionally revolutionary temper; in the province of Samara, across the Volga from Saratoff, a short-lived peasant "republic" arose at the time. The greater danger of peasant unrest is in the possible effect on the morale of the armies. Desertions from the ranks by mujiks eager to hurry home and take possession of new allotments may not be large in number, but the effect on army discipline is obvious. Yet the outstanding fact in Russia to-day is that the revolutionary parties, with the exception of a few extremists, have clearly expressed their decision to coöperate with the Provisional Government, both in internal affairs and in the general outlines of foreign policy. Once the danger of serious dissension at Petrograd is removed, ferment in the interior of the country may be regarded as a problem without becoming a menace.

SENATOR BORAH'S announcement that he will retire from public life at the expiration of his present term in the Senate, two years from now, will cause double regret. Personally, Mr. Borah will be missed; while the reason which he gives for his decision to withdraw—the need of making provision for his family—reminds us of a constant and apparently insurmountable difficulty in the career open to talent in the United States. We cannot think of paying Senators salaries anywhere near what the ablest of them could earn in private pursuits. The result is that we frequently find men like Senator Borah, who feel that they have made all the sacrifice for public life that can be demanded of them, and that they must attend to the duty of providing for their own. In the Senate, Mr. Borah has had a steadily growing reputation. A ready and eloquent speaker, he has brought a sound legal and Constitutional knowledge to the debates, and has often shown himself a man of deep and independent convictions. In the recent discussion of the Espionage bill, Senator Borah took the lead in attacking the unreasonable and perilous features of the legislation, as proposed. His analysis of the measure had much to do with its being withdrawn for extensive repairs.

MR. HOWARD ELLIOTT retires from his four years' presidency of the New Haven, not only with enhanced reputation as an executive, but also with the distinction of having rehabilitated the road in both its finances and its standing before the public. If it had been so fortunate as to have a man of his type managing it in the years just prior to his assuming the responsibility, it would not have fallen to the depths from which he has raised it. What calls for special praise is the way in which he met unexpected difficulties. The situation as everybody knew it was bad enough to frighten away any administrator but the boldest. The frequent terrible wrecks were only the most conspicuous sign of utter demoralization. Yet some of the heaviest burdens were created after Mr. Elliott took hold. Thus, the Massachusetts court declared illegal a plan which guaranteed nearly seventy millions in cash to pay floating debts and make needed improvements. On the last day of 1914, the company had a balance of less than $200,000 above fixed charges. Two years later, the balance was $5,500,000. The floating debt has been reduced from $56,000,000 to $43,000,000, but still, in Mr. Elliott's words, "hangs like a millstone about the neck of the company," and will continue to do so until the Legislatures of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island harmonize their laws.

AN undergraduate at Princeton writes the *Daily Princetonian* to ask whether professors and instructors are at liberty "to throw over their classes in order to assist the Reserve Corps in Topography," no action being taken "to fill in such vacancies or to readjust classes." He says something about a contract, and thinks that, if the university is going to keep open "and, fully appreciative of the war, is to continue its pursuit of knowledge in a calm manner," it cannot consistently "discourage the attempts of the undergraduates to acquire a little." There are a few students, he boldly asserts, "actually interested in their work. A few seniors in particular intend to complete the term." It is a new thing under the sun to see undergraduates lamenting the cutting of classes by professors; perhaps this one does not speak for very many. From reports of the atmosphere at Princeton just now, we wonder whether there may not be a touch of sarcasm in his reference to the pursuit of knowledge "in a calm manner." But as a mere matter of business, there would seem to be force in his demand that the University is under obligation to render certain service for certain fees duly offered and accepted.

THE closing of Robert College is not the least of the small tragedies of the war. Founded in 1863, it has for half a century steadily increased its influence over the life and thought of the Near East. Although situated in Constantinople, it has drawn most of its students from neighboring countries—Bulgaria, Servia, Greece, and Armenia. While its consistent policy has been to leave politics strictly alone, not a little of the Liberal movement in the Near East may be traced to its doors. It is asserted that Bulgaria won her independence through men educated at Robert College; and a number of the Greek and Servian high officials owe to it their early training. Even the Young Turk Party, which brought about the revolution of some years ago and so nearly succeeded in its enterprise of liberalization, was largely inspired by men trained there. Whether its work is now finally ended, hinges on the result of the war.

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In the War with a Free Hand

MR. BALFOUR did an excellent day's work on Wednesday of last week. In his press interview, he managed to disperse in a few words a great many rumors and suspicions that had gathered about the purpose of the English and French missions now in Washington. With much delicacy of touch, yet with entire explicitness, he made it clear that the thought of anything like a formal alliance, or of any binding agreement, public or secret, with this country had never been dreamed of in his philosophy. Mr. Balfour declared that the confidence which he and his colleagues felt in the effective aid which the United States would give to the Allied cause was based upon considerations quite apart from such a thing as entering into treaty obligations. To ask this country to stipulate what it would do was "entirely unnecessary," Mr. Balfour affirmed. In his mind, the spontaneous offers of an unfettered nation are better than undertakings which have to be put down in the form of a contract.

The significance of Mr. Balfour's language is not simply that it was graceful and sagacious and exceedingly well-timed. It came after his long consultation with the President. The British Foreign Secretary could not have spoken as he did without knowing that what he said was in keeping with Mr. Wilson's thought, and that his saying it was agreeable to the President. The statement must also have been made in complete understanding of the attitude of the French Commissioners. Thus, before the joint official conferences began, we had from our guests a sort of guide to the spirit in which they would be conducted. There was to be no dickering, no manœuvring for position, no nice balancing of accounts. The United States would simply be asking the Allies, "How can we best assist you?" And they, at once grateful and proud, would put all the information they had at our disposal. So that what we were to have was not a body of diplomats scheming in secret, but brothers in arms conferring on the question how best to compass the objects they all had at heart.

The *Nation* has so often said that the United States ought to keep a free hand in the war that the full assurance of such an attitude was naturally gratifying to us. It at once removed a certain fear which many in Congress had expressed about the possibility that this country might contract with the Allies hampering obligations. We have all along considered this of the first importance. But this has not blinded us to other things. In the free hand, which we insist upon as essential, there should be held out a full purse. Large credits for the Allies were mentioned by the President in his message to Congress as one of the earliest and most useful forms of assistance which America could give. The process has already happily begun with a loan of $200,000,000 to Great Britain. The financial needs of Russia will speedily receive attention, we have no doubt. And it is peculiarly welcome news that a large grant in aid of Belgium is also on the programme. Money and ships are the prime needs of the Allies, and the first efforts of the United States can be most intelligently directed towards supplying them at the earliest possible date.

In his official greeting to the new Belgian Minister, President Wilson expressed his belief that, after the war, Belgium would resume her place among the "prosperous and peace-loving nations of the world." This was something more than a pious wish. It was a tacit confession of the way in which the war, and the aims with which the United States enters it, have insensibly broadened with the lapse of time. It is no longer a mere question of American rights at sea. The German Government might now call off its submarines, and offer to pay us an indemnity for all the destruction they have wrought, and still we should have to ask, now being in the war against an autocratic Prussian militarism and in behalf of the rights of small nations, "What about Belgium?" We do not say that the entry of the United States into the war has had anything directly to do with the growing number of voices in Germany which are saying that there must be no annexations. But we should hope, and we really think, that the coming into the war of the greatest democracy, with all thought of conquest put away from it, and every form of material gain renounced in advance, must sooner or later have the effect of convincing even the most absolutist rulers left on earth that the extinguishment of nationalities and the seizure of their land can no longer be tolerated in this world—unless it is to fall into the pit.

For a Sensible Censorship

THE House Committee has entirely rewritten the sections of the Espionage bill which bear upon the press. In their revised form there is little for newspapers to object to. Severe though proper restrictions are placed upon the printing of news that may give information or be of aid to the enemy, but the right freely to comment upon public men and their policies—even their war policies—is asserted and guarded. In line with these important changes in the bill is the handsome statement of President Wilson, declaring that he would not permit any of his official acts to be shielded from criticism under the terms of the Espionage measure, and adding:

> I can imagine no greater disservice to the country than to establish a system of censorship that would deny to the people of a free republic like our own their indisputable right to criticise their own public officials. While exercising the great powers of the office I hold, I would regret in a crisis like the one through which we are now passing to lose the benefit of patriotic and intelligent criticism.

All along, the attitude of reputable newspapers seems to have been misconceived by those who drafted this legislation in its original form. They assumed that the American press would be reckless in publishing military intelligence, and would need the most rigid censorship that could be devised, with heavy penalties, to prevent it from giving aid and comfort to the enemy. But this was absurd. Consider the readiness with which the newspapers have submitted and are submitting to a purely voluntary censorship. Merely on the request of our navy and army authorities, they have refrained, as everybody knows, from printing whole classes of news that they would ordinarily publish. There has been no compulsion about this. No legal punishment could have been inflicted upon any newspaper publisher for disregarding the desire of the Government. The whole thing was unforced. Without any Espionage law whatever, the newspapers would spontaneously suppress any information that they were assured might be of advantage to the enemy. This is elementary; though it appears not to have been known to those in the Department of Justice who set out to frame a bill to curb the press in war time.

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Neither did they know, seemingly, how their further provisions, aimed at striking down the right, not to print news, but to discuss the conduct and policies of the Administration, would stir up such a protest as to compel a recasting of the bill. And it is noteworthy that this result itself illustrates the value of the very process of free debate in question. For when the bill was first presented, the general impulse was to accept it without demur as a necessary war-measure. To raise any doubts concerning it was "unpatriotic." But first a hearing was demanded by a small body of objectors. They had to make a hurried appearance, and did not deeply impress the Senate Committee. But at a second hearing they unlimbered heavier artillery, and brought out so clearly the offensive and dangerous nature of the proposed censorship that a reaction at once set in. Free debate of the bill began in the Senate, with the weight of argument and the weight of numbers also against the bill as submitted. The press took the matter up for ventilation and vigorous protest, and a revulsion of sentiment soon set in. Its consequences we now see in the complete abandonment by the House Committee of the drastic and tyrannous parts of the original draft.

No one—no newspaper, certainly—denies that in this war a censorship is needed. In our Civil War the press had too great liberties in military matters, which it too frequently abused. Our war with Spain seemed sometimes to be a perfect revel of newspaper correspondents and sensational publications. If we had not learned something since then, and also taken to heart the lessons of the European war, it would be much to our discredit. There is no real objection to a sensible censorship. Held within its proper limits, it scarcely needs a law to establish it, since all decent newspapers and news associations would heed the requests of the authorities. But in this we speak of printing news, not of expressing opinions. A censorship that attempted to prevent the latter was, as we can at present perceive, doomed in advance in the United States. When the President avows that he has no wish to be exempt from criticism, we take it that no subordinate member of the Government will venture to assume that to find fault with him is to make glad the heart of the Kaiser.

Joffre and the Genius of France

NO imaginable event in the long months of conflict still to come can rob the victor of the Marne of his preeminence. He is the one grandiose figure of the war. No imaginable event can rival the battle of the Marne in its significance for the history of the world and civilization. It does not matter that Marshal Joffre has been replaced as leader of the French armies. It does not matter that the battle of the Marne left a heavy task and tremendous sacrifices for the French nation to carry through. If the genius of Joffre spent itself on the Marne, it was in the performance of a supreme mission carried out amidst all the circumstance of a great drama—a mighty issue decided after agonizing suspense amidst the hush of a watching world. After two and a half years of crashing conflicts and untold heroisms, of sweeping victories and great retreats, of a war map unrolling itself over three continents, it is still impossible to go back to the now old story of the Marne without that catch of the breath, without the sacred awe, aroused by the presence of powers and issues almost more than human. The drama of the great war has worked itself out contrary to all the rules of dramatic construction. There were no long acts of preparation and development. Hardly had the play begun when the climax was upon us. Forty-one days from the rise of the curtain to the pitch of the action, and thirty-two months of slow descent towards a final curtain not yet in sight. Is it any wonder the events and the man of those first forty-one days still maintain an unapproachable fascination?

If the Marne was a victory won for civilization by France, it was also won in accordance with the genius of France. It is impossible to read again the story of the first five weeks of the war without recognizing that at bottom there is truth in the oft-exaggerated generalizations about the peculiarities of national genius. Perhaps we are to-day, after two and a half years of war, inclined to stress too much the new discoveries of the French temperament. It has become a commonplace to say that, instead of a frivolous people, the French are really the most practical of nations; instead of a nation of talkers, they are really a nation of doers; instead of a gay nation, a serious nation; instead of an imaginative people, a plodding people. For French *élan* we are asked to substitute French endurance unto death. But what adds glow and poetry to the battle of the Marne is that it was fought and largely won in the spirit of the older, historic French virtues and traits. It was won by the old French heroism, and more than that, by the old French imagination founded upon innate reason. Brilliant, but unsafe, we are accustomed to say of the exceptional master in chess. Brilliant, but unsafe, used to be the commonplace generalization of the French national temperament. Brilliant and daring was the strategy of the battle of the Marne. It was a victory of the French mind over the German mind.

The difference between German strategy and French strategy in the campaign that ended with the Marne was the difference between mechanical precision and imagination. The German plan was to set into motion two enormous pincers, one swinging in from Belgium, one from the western frontier between Nancy and Belfort, and to crush the French armies somewhere in the valley of the Seine. The French plan did not call for the exertion of all the power of the nation's armies to resist this strangling manœuvre. Joffre took the chance of holding back the iron pressure with part of his forces while watching for the opportunity to throw the remainder in a hammer-blow against the enemy claw from without. The German armies were all in place when the hostilities began; the machine was complete in every part, and once set into motion, had only to be kept going. The French armies were not all in being. Joffre preferred to wait and see. Against the German machine he had what is called in chess a combination; that is to say, against caution and method he opposed mind. He created one new army while in the full course of retreat and brought another army from his extreme right wing to play a decisive rôle in the centre of his line. Nothing in the history of the war can rival for combined foresight and daring the gathering of the army of Bretons and Normans, the Sixth Army, which Joffre first attempted to throw against the northern claw of the German pincers from Amiens. The attempt failed. But the army that was driven back around Amiens appeared within a few days around Paris. Thence it was thrown against von Kluck's right wing on the Ourcq, and the battle of the Marne was won.

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The German plan of victory counted upon existing armies arriving at a certain place at a certain time. Joffre's plan depended upon the creation of a new army and its arrival where and when it was wanted. It is this evocation of an army from the void which gives the dramatic, the characteristically French touch, to the great event.

Up to the moment of execution the plan of the Marne, if it had been known to the outside world, would have been called brilliant, but unsafe. As we look back in the fuller knowledge of to-day we see that it was both brilliant and safe. For in the battle of the Marne there was revealed to the world a synthesis of the traditional French genius and the unsuspected virtues we are now aware of. The conception of the battle had French imagination and dash; its execution revealed those marvellous powers of resiliency and endurance which have stirred the imagination of the world. The victory which saved the cause of international faith and democracy was won by men who rallied to the attack after five weeks of disaster and retreat. The men who were hurled back with bloody loss at Saarbrück stood like an iron wall against the Kaiser's furious attacks before Nancy. The men who were beaten in Alsace came under Foch to shatter the Prussian Guard at La Fère Champenoise. The Breton and Norman territorials who gave way before von Kluck around Amiens were the men who on the Ourcq carried out Joffre's injunctions to die in their tracks if they must, but not to give way. In the decisive moment French imagination was justified by French devotion.

Taxes and Taxpayers

THE large impending increase in taxation makes the subject of more than theoretical importance. We may look forward to the tax system being not merely an object of annoyance, but a vital factor in the equalization of public burdens. What are the different kinds of taxes? Who pays them? What is "just" taxation? These are questions in which many will henceforth be interested. The probabilities are that we must raise this year an additional two billions, or twenty dollars for every man, woman, and child in the country. How may this be accomplished most easily and, at the same time, equitably? The problem is to do it in such a manner as to leave a sense of fair play with all classes and sections. And, more than this, taxation must not only meet present needs, but must refrain from discouraging future progress. Practical wisdom is as important as theoretical consistency; a levy which should be so large as to create a momentous change in present standards of expenditure may appeal to our sense of equity, but it would be accompanied by a far-reaching disturbance of conditions that would do more harm than good.

The three types of taxes which appear most fruitful are those on incomes, excess profits, and consumption. How will each of these distribute the burden of the war? The distinguishing feature of the income tax is that it is virtually impossible to shift it to some one else. It must be finally paid by the person against whom it is assessed. However, it may be evaded. The normal tax, indeed, can be collected at the source; but the super-tax must remain partly a matter of personal honesty. The question of exemptions is of great importance. At present they include State and municipal bonds. A further difficulty lies in the fact that much of our national income is derived from agriculture. Of an estimated total of about twenty billions, nearly one-half is due to this source. Farmers are notoriously lax in their bookkeeping; even with the best of intentions, they could not make more than a guess at their incomes. No doubt an arbitrary ruling that net income shall be considered a certain percentage of total income would approximate justice. Yet, at best, there is bound to be dissatisfaction.

In regard to the gradation of the super-tax, it seems to be agreed that it will rise rapidly, and reach even 40 per cent. of the largest incomes. It has been boldly suggested that all incomes above a certain amount should be confiscated. While this might appear to involve a comparatively small hardship to such persons, for they would still have a bountiful sum left over, nevertheless, the secondary effects of such a plan make it a subject to be studied with care. So widespread are the effects of sudden changes throughout the whole social structure that practical wisdom suggests a more moderate initial assessment, with the possibility later, under more serious financial burdens, of a further increase.

The excess-profits tax is one of large possibilities. In England it is estimated to yield more than half a billion this year. The rate in England is 60 per cent., although it is not clear just how this is calculated. There has been some suggestion in this country of a progressive scale. In determining it, one danger must be borne in mind. It must not be such as to diminish the creation of the profits which are to be taxed. But this does not preclude a rather high rate. Common-sense in such matters is of equal importance with abstract principles. But one thing must be cleared up, and that is a working definition of excess profits. At present it is surrounded by a misty vapor that defies the closest analysis. What shall we say of the proposal to consider all above 8 per cent. of invested capital as excess? What is invested capital? Excess profits can only be discussed in relation to normal profits—a vague enough conception even at its best. They can be computed only in the light of actual past performance, with some modifications, under exceptional circumstances. An average of earnings for the last five years, for instance, would, perhaps, be approximately fair.

Excise taxes are the most difficult of all to forecast. While their possibilities are boundless (Professor Seligman estimates that at Civil War rates they would yield upward of one and a quarter billion dollars), yet the final payment of the tax varies widely. Take a competitive article of general consumption, like sugar or tobacco. The tax would be added to the price, and the burden distributed over all consumers, with little regard for their means. On the other hand, a tax on a luxury, like an opera ticket or automobile, would fall on the well-to-do. Again, a small tax levied on a monopoly, such as one-quarter cent on telephone calls or trolley fares, would tend to be paid by the monopoly. When imposts greatly increase the price of an article which is not a prime necessity, they simply decrease its consumption without yielding the desired revenue. In other words, the bearing of the burden follows no general rule, but depends in each case on particular conditions. Under these circumstances, "justice" is a difficult thing to achieve. But excise taxes are easy from the point of view of raising money, since they can scarcely be evaded.

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A Famous Land Case

THE Supreme Court decision of Monday of last week, upholding the Chamberlain-Ferris law of 1916 and its disposition of the 2,300,000 acres in Oregon and Washington over which the Southern Pacific and the Federal Government have contended for years, is important in itself. The land in question is a princely domain. The Court's action, while doing no violence to the railway's actual rights, opens it to thousands of settlers and turns over the unearned increment of decades to the public. But the decision is more important as demonstrating anew the determination of the Government not only to protect the interests of the public in the existing public domain, but to redress so far as possible the wrongs done the people by land-grabbers of past generations. The old policy of the Government to grant land to railways as an inducement to building is at an end; under Roosevelt, Taft, and Wilson the policy of withdrawing valuable mineral and timber tracts from entry has been steadily pushed; a large number of laws to prevent exploitation of public property by corporations, and to give the real homesteader the opportunity to make a place for himself in a new country, have been passed. At the same time, since 1906 Federal action for the recovery of public lands fraudulently obtained or used has been pushed vigorously. Within a year and a half after the passage of the law and appropriation of 1907 for investigation of land frauds, the Government had recovered 630,000 acres, had released from unlawful fences a million acres, and with 32,000 cases under investigation had only begun its work.

No single case for the recovery of public rights has been of greater importance than that just closed. Its difficulties can be appreciated only if its history is known. In 1866 Congress, wishing to give Oregon an outlet to the East over the transcontinental railways then building, authorized a grant of 3,100,000 acres to the Oregon & California, later absorbed by the Southern Pacific Railway. Much of the grant was covered with heavy forests, then of insignificant commercial value. The land was given under conditions of the usual sort: it could be sold only to actual settlers, no purchaser might have more than 160 acres, and the railway was not to charge more than $2.50 an acre. For decades none appeared to buy. But as Eastern lumber disappeared, shrewd business men perceived the chance and set about in the old fraudulent way—by use of the Timber and Stone act and of dummy entrymen—obtaining huge tracts. Some 800,000 acres had thus gone to settlers and lumbermen when the railway, deciding that the profit in the rising valuation might as well be its own, refused to sell more. The Government also shut up the remaining public forests in forest reserves.

The legal history of the case began in 1907, when the Oregon Legislature memorialized Congress about the railway's refusal to sell land and its past sales in large tracts and at prices exceeding $2.50 an acre, demanding that the grant should be declared forfeited. A Federal suit for forfeiture was brought, and when the District Court decided in favor of the Government, appeal was taken. Meanwhile, some 6,000 people, eager to obtain a quarter section of timber worth up to $20,000 at the Government price of $400, tendered the r[illegible]ay their money, and upon meeting with a refusal interve[illegible]n the Government suit. The settlers in the eighteen counties in which the land lies also intervened, asking for a receiver to dispose of the remaining land. The Supreme Court in 1915 handed down a two-sided decision. It refused to declare the lands forfeited, or to have a receiver appointed; but it did enjoin the railway from selling the undisposed 2,300,000 acres, and gave them to the disposal of Congress. In Oregon it was urged that Congress should grant the land to the two States, which should pay the Southern Pacific $2.50 an acre and sell it for the benefit of the school funds. But the Ferris-Chamberlain law, now upheld, provided that the lands should be classified and water-power sites be reserved; that timber and farming lands should be sold separately; that the proceeds should be divided to give $2.50 an acre to the railway; that $1,300,000 should be paid the States in taxes, and that of the remainder one-fourth should be given the States for schools, one-fourth to the counties for public works, 40 per cent to the Reclamation Fund, and 10 per cent. to the Treasury. This is essential justice—though it leaves untouched those who "grabbed" 800,000 acres prior to 1903.

While hundreds of thousands of minor inquiries into land fraud have been pushed by the Land Office, there have been a number of major cases of nearly as much interest as that just settled. The long controversy over the Cunningham coal claims in Alaska ended when in 1911 the Government cancelled all entries on these lands. The suit which the Government brought in 1915 against the Southern Pacific and forty other corporations for the recovery of oil lands worth $100,000 in Kern County, California, was, within a few years, the seventh of importance affecting petroleum deposits. More might be mentioned. The pity is that so much of the Federal domain was wasted.

Lord Hugh Cecil

WHAT has become of Lord Hugh Cecil? "Tell me, shepherds, have you seen a lost lamb pass this way?" The member who fitly holds the parliamentary freehold of Oxford University has not been seen in the House of Commons since the new session opened. Nor has he been in constant attendance since war was declared. Twelve years ago he, a comparatively new member, by odd coincidence seated in succession, *longo intervallo*, for Gladstone's old borough of Greenwich, flashed meteoric light upon a pleased assembly. His rising in debate, signalled through the precincts of the House, was followed by a rush of members back to their places not exceeded when Mr. Balfour or Mr. Chamberlain was known to be on his legs. Among other attractions as a speaker he possessed the rare one that no one could guess what he was likely to say on a current topic. A Conservative of the strictest sect, son of the late Premier, cousin of the reigning one, he was not bound by ties whether of family or of party. Implacable in integrity, almost acrid in his reverence for what he believed to be the truth, he scorned conventionality in any shape.

After brief practice, he, overcoming a tendency to hesitating manner and faltering speech, became one of the most polished, effective contributors to debate. Of two young members of the day he was one who dared to stand up against Mr. Chamberlain and did not always come off second best. The other was Lloyd George. When the campaign against free trade was launched (with headquarters at Birmingham of all places in the country), Lord Hugh stood faithfully by the family allegiance to the principle most closely

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associated with the name of Cobden, otherwise anathema at Hatfield. In private conversation at a time when Mr. Chamberlain seemed to have captured the Conservative party, Lord Salisbury, in temporary retirement owing to failing health, announced his intention, should what was known as the Tariff Reform bill reach the House of Lords from the Commons, of being in his place to oppose it, even if he had to be carried there. His two sons in the House of Commons unflinchingly advocated his views on the subject. It would be rude to conjecture Mr. Balfour's actual conviction. Suffice it that, leader of a Ministry of whom the member for Birmingham was the indispensable prop, through several sessions he attempted with marvellous skill the impossible feat of walking on both sides of the road.

These were tactics impossible to Lord Hugh Cecil, who uncompromisingly protested against a policy forced upon the Unionist party by an implacable will. In debate on the Address in what proved to be the last session of Mr. Balfour's administration, he delivered a brilliant speech, recognized as chiefly responsible for the ominous reduction of the majority which four years earlier hailed Lord Salisbury's triumphant reinstatement in power. "Life would be endurable only for Cousin Hugh," Mr. Balfour is reported to have said on that occasion. The remark is probably as apocryphal as was the Duke of Wellington's command at Waterloo, "Up, guards, and at 'em." Its despondency contrasts with the confident vigor of the Duke's order, which goes some way in the direction of establishing its authenticity.

It cannot be said that Lord Hugh's withdrawal from the scene has eclipsed the gayety of Parliament. He has a morbid wit, and his personal thrusts, often dealt in unexpected quarters, enlivened the proceedings. But with Labor members on the benches opposite and Irish Nationalists on those behind him, life had for him no impulse towards gayety. Circumstances of the hour have finally confirmed inclination, growing through this long session, to curtail his attendance at the House. In the transformation of party arrangement brought about by the war no place is left for the free lance. Mr. Lloyd George has stormed the stage, and with place occasionally given to his deputy in the leadership of the House he fills it. During the last two years the House of Commons has suffered a sad change. The private member has, save at question time, been obliterated. Party politics, though assuredly not dead, are soundly sleeping.

Last session there was in existence something in the nature of a cave dug out by members of the Liberal party who, after a fashion that goes back to the days of Lowe, Roebuck, and Horsman, flung mud at their esteemed leaders on the Treasury bench. With the reconstruction of the Ministry under its present leadership, this community is silent. The only resemblance to a clique in evidence this session is mustered under the alternative leadership of Mr. Ponsonby, Mr. Snowden, Mr. Trevelyan, and the pertinacious Pringle. Whatever measure of esteem they may enjoy in Germany, these gentlemen are absolutely disregarded at Westminster. When the other night they made an organized effort to demonstrate that peace-loving Germany was anxious to bring to instant close this dreadful war, a desire checked by the unrighteous stubbornness of their own country, they were listened to by a small House with a restraint that testifies afresh to the tradition of freedom of speech sacred to the House of Commons. With inconsiderable exceptions the House of Commons is, perhaps for the first time in its history, absolutely unanimous on the burning question of the day, a condition of monotony not favorable to brilliant controversialists.

It is possible that Lord Hugh is primarily confirmed in abstention from attendance at the House of Commons by knowledge of the company that awaits him in his old quarters on the front bench below the gangway on the Opposition side. There was a period in his Parliamentary career when, occupying the corner seat on this bench made historic in connection with Lord Randolph Churchill, he seemed on the way to revive the activity and influence of the Fourth party. While his cousin Arthur, in company with other ex-Ministers, slumbered on the front bench, titular leaders of the Opposition, it was from below the gangway, where Lord Hugh sat with a small group of choice companions, that at first Campbell Bannerman, later Mr. Asquith, met their most effective foemen. Lord Hugh, entering the House to-day, would find his own seat and the quarter occupied by his company of francs tireurs in possession of the Peace-at-any-Pricers. When, on the resignation of Mr. Asquith, there followed a game of General Post, these gentlemen, formerly vocal below the gangway on the Ministerial side, by an operation suspiciously akin to a raid from the trenches, swooped down on this favored position and have successfully repulsed attempts to retake it. Thence day after day, in ordered debate when possible, failing that at the Question Time, they, like the emissaries of Joram King of Israel intercepting the advancing son of Jehoshaphat, ask, "Is it peace?" Whereto Jehu Lloyd George, riding furiously on the war path, makes sharp reply, "What hast thou to do with peace? Turn thou behind me."

HENRY LUCY

House of Commons, April 15

From Florence Coates to Amy Lowell: A Glance at Modernity

Poems. By Florence Earle Coates. Collected edition, in two volumes. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. The set $2.50 net.

A Lark Went Singing and Other Poems. By Ruth Guthrie Harding. Minneapolis: Edmund D. Brooks.

The Cycle's Rim. By Olive Tilford Dargan. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.

Life and Living. By Amelia Josephine Burr. New York: George H. Doran Company. $1 net.

Men, Women and Ghosts. By Amy Lowell. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.25.

THE five women I review to-day are ascending rungs in a ladder of modernity, and this fact has governed the order and here and there shaped the contents of this paper.

In Mrs. Florence Earle Coates the tradition of the mid-nineteenth century is still sovereign. Certain subjects, like Henry James and the Bernhardtesque Hamlet, clamp the work mechanically to our period, but the two volumes that house the accumulations of Mrs. Coates contain hardly a sentiment that would have seemed premature in

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1850. The writer loves no other goddess like Persephone, and she will forgive me if I describe her refined and graceful verse as the "pale primroses" and "violets dim" which the poetry of our forefathers let fall at the moment of its abstraction to the under-world. Mrs. Coates might reply that Persephone was fated to return, and I should be the last to seek to deprive her of the solace of that cheerful augury. But, for the time being, a period—if I may venture a half-pun—reaches its cadence in her verse.

That Mrs. Coates's best is genuinely good three stanzas from "Adieu" will show.

I weep not, nor shall futile sighs
Hold you longer,
The pity in your loveless eyes
Makes me stronger . . .

I listen while your lips protest,
Heavy-hearted
For by your wishes unexpressed—
We are parted.

I listen, and hope's fickle glow
Fades away.
Why mock my grief? If you can go—
Wherefore stay?

More usual in Mrs. Coates than this strength and pathos are sweetness of versification and amiable sentiments which rise and taper as they rise. She has skill in the carriage and pilotage of a musical phrase. What Chaucer said laughingly of his Prioress, I would repeat seriously of Mrs. Coates: "Wel coude she carie a morsel and wel kepe." The morsels undoubtedly vary in succulence.

In her emphasis on pure feeling and pure melody, Mrs. Harding is as close to the tradition as Mrs. Coates; but a single trait—the precision of her motives—defines and establishes her modernity. The sparing touch is likewise modern, but the kinships of "A Lark Went Singing" are mostly heirships in the innocent and worthy sense, and the long, shapely lines globe themselves into a kind of parallelism with the more spreading and orbicular rhythms of Tennyson and Matthew Arnold. The heart dilates with the voice, and an emotion, powerful but tractable, informs the line of its steadfast, liberal, pervasive presence. I find mass and sobriety in this emotion rather than that "psychic tremble" noted by Richard Burton in his interesting and sympathetic preface. A stanza from "Grotesque" may introduce my readers to a poet of true promise, who has music enough to enable her to forego noise.

With the first light on the skyline came the rapping of the sickles
And the brown arms of the reapers bent to toil another morn;
Close beside me in the glimmer, in the golden sweep and shimmer,
Knelt a reaper strange among us crooning through the ragged corn:
"Born of sorrow,
Gone to-morrow—
Gone to lie in yonder valley where their fathers long have lain;
Men who know not ship nor sabre,
Each but drudges by his neighbor,
And the fields wherein they labor are a heritage of pain!"

Mrs. Dargan's poetry is curiously and richly composite: the form, the texture, is Elizabethan; the conflux of love with landscape and piety is mid-nineteenth century; the collective or social motive, less audible here than in other poems, affiliates her with still later times. The volume consists of fifty-one sonnets, cogently grouped, stringently condensed, and scrupulously elaborated; and the exertion demanded of the reader is proportionate, though not equal to the author's thoroughness and resolution. The sonnets are dedicated "To One Drowned at Sea," and the threnody is resonant and impassioned. This sorrow is Tyrian; its note is sumptuosity; it is that "gorgeous Tragedy" whose "sceptred pall" evoked the homage of Milton in his "Il Penseroso." In this matter I suspect an excess. I would not lay an orchid on a bier, though I do not forget that in Mrs. Dargan's parterres orchids grow almost as spontaneously as violets. I concede that there is solace in magnificence. The first sonnet will suggest the sombre exultation, the mournful triumph, by which bereavement is at once enriched and tempered.

Deep lies thy body, jewel of the sea,
Locked down with wave on wave. Pearl-drift among
The coral towers, and yet not thee, not thee!
So lightly didst thou mount, blue rung o'er rung,
The lustred ladder rippling from that land
Of strangely boughed and wooing wildernesses.
Province of dream unwaning, dream yet banned
From sleepers in the sun; but thou, as presses
The lark that feels his song, sped to thy sky.
O unrepressed! If thou wouldst choose be gone,
What sea-charm then could stay thee, bid thee lie
Too deep for cock-crow earth or heaven's dawn?
Yet must I chant these broken, mortal staves,
And lay my leaf of laurel on the waves.

I have already praised Miss Burr's "Ulysses in Ithaca" for its rare secret of being generous to nature without being illiberal to humanity. It is in this matter of equipoise between ancestral law and contemporary impulse that Miss Burr is—not rankly modern—but quasi-modern or bicenturial. She has not renounced the safety of the castle, but her favorite walk is the parapet overlooking the unploughed heath and the brigand-haunted forest.

"Life and Living" hardly crowns the hopes aroused by "In Deep Places." Two or three of the war poems are calm and high processionals fit to arm—or disarm—a people in its hour of peril and probation; "Kitchener's March" has a vigor unfamiliar to state elegies; there are buoyant, undulant rhythms in which the mastery of Miss Burr is incontestable. Intention is authoritative in these poems, usually to the profit of the art, sometimes to the detriment of the impulse. Emotion is not scant; indeed, it is conscientiously provided by a commissariat whose vigilance is unrelaxing. But *rations* somehow do not quicken appetite.

Miss Burr writes monologues in which piety and sex combine or alternate, and the religious and the sexual impulses seem amicable, almost sisterly. In these points every nature has its own decorum; there is no evil in the poems, but an apple is mushy at the same stage of plasticity at which a pear is only mellow, and Miss Burr's affinities are with the hardier fruit. The following poem, which I quote entire, shows the vigor of Miss Burr at her sanest and truest:

While we have waited what each day might bring
To all this wild tormented world of ours,
There never was a more ecstatic spring,
Nor sweeter jubilance of summer flowers.

Never amid the waking forest gleamed
The dogwood's pure exuberance more white,
Never the honeysuckle hedges dreamed
In richer fragrance through the quiet night.

Goldenrod foams in seas of sunny spray;
Glad liquid twitterings hail the dark withdrawn.
What flower do Belgium's children pluck to-day?
Where do the birds of Poland greet the dawn?

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Miss Lowell's aptitude for titles has not forsaken her in "Men, Women and Ghosts." The poems in the volume, which are executed with an odd combination of levity and nicety, negligence and punctilio, fall readily into three classes. The least normal class is the group in which Miss Lowell does not so much narrate a story as unroll so many yards of rich brocade or lengths of shimmering wall-paper. "The *dramatis personæ*," in her own words, "are air, clouds, trees, house, streets." The reigning principle is detachment. Detach the sight or the sound from the object to which it normally serves as aspect and property, detach the eye or the ear from the organism to which its action is habitually and properly subject, and you approximate to the conception of Miss Lowell. She has herself provided me with an apt comparison. In one of her odder and wilder monologues a woman finds under a lilac bush a white and jewelled hand divided from the complemental body. I have no doubt that the hand was curious and original in the surprise of this extraordinary detachment; and the same may be said of Miss Lowell's literary abscissions, but the finder, with a sense which I would modestly commend to the imitation of her creator, perceived the futility of a hand so circumstanced, found a spade, and buried it under an apple tree behind the barn. What Miss Lowell fails to grasp is that man is first human, and secondly ocular and auricular; to her the body is an eye-stalk.

In the second class of poems the descriptive matter is still prominent, but is nominally subordinated to the conduct of a story in which the theme is criminal or tragic. I have always found it hard to understand why in those mixtures of arts in which literature is the adjunct, such as grand opera or spectacles of the Sumurûn type, its note should be exceptionally clamorous. The same anomaly appears in these narratives and monologues in which story is subordinated to picture. It is as if a man professed to drink strong waters merely for the sake of the sparkle in the glass and then insisted that the true sparkle was obtainable only from the fieriest liquors.

There is, however, one narrative in this group before which censure must bow and hush itself in reverent acknowledgment of its clear-cut beauty. That narrative is "The Fruit Shop." Its success is not inexplicable. Miss Lowell's dubious habit of stressing the adjunct, of playing with the tassels of a subject, has become, in this instance, by its conversion into irony, the ideal resource for the enhancement and enforcement of the dramatic and vital motives in the theme. This little masterpiece absolves the volume.

There is still a third group of poems in which Miss Lowell, by a curious reaction, paints strange events in humble lives in homely dialect. "Reaping" is strong; I grant its ugliness, but the ugliness of nature and truth has value. One welcomes Miss Lowell in this mood as one welcomes Nora Helmer when she has taken off her masquerade dress. A high artist was lost to the world when Miss Lowell made it her aim in life to dance the tarantella.

Lastly, as to modernism. On the question of morals the attitude of Miss Lowell is tacit or neutral. She neither praises nor blames that adultery to which her debt for themes is so considerable. I cannot but imagine—on grounds far short of demonstration—that the conflict between right and wrong is classed in Miss Lowell's mind with the feuds of the Neri and Bianchi in mediæval Florence or the contentions of the Blues and Greens in the hippodrome of Constantinople. Be this as it may, she is modern to excess in her free verse and her polyphony, in her fearlessness in theme and diction, and in the curious theory and practice which reduces the world to a set of pigments and makes the passions and interests of mankind a footnote or postscript to the silvering of a cloud or the curve of an eyelash. Will she gain finally by the boldness of this stand? Novelty is libertine, and libertine not least in its habit of leaving in permanent distress the object of its transitory favors. Have Miss Lowell's methods inherent force enough to survive the defection of this treacherous ally?

O. W. Firkins

Correspondence

THE WRATH OF GOD

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is a deal of sound divinity, large statesmanship, and common-sense in a remark of former Governor Judson Harmon in an address at a great patriotic mass meeting in Cincinnati last week. Though the words refer particularly to those among us who desired earlier action against Germany, the clause which I have italicized is worthy of wide publicity because it is capable of heartening those who are inclined to regret the step that has been taken. I quote a little of the context:

> Not the least of the strong features of this patriotic action is its timeliness. Some of us have cried out from time to time: "How long, oh Lord, how long?" We must now confess that it was wiser to endure for a season until *the uprising of a patient nation is akin to the wrath of God.*

Now, whether we take "the wrath of God" in a literal or in a figurative sense, reason will dictate that unless God is a petty tribal deity his wrath must spring from eternal and universal motives and must be sweeping and radical in its manifestations. And if our nation is to justify its entrance into the war as a completely worthy act, it must show the world some fundamental wrong and must not rest until that wrong is righted.

Most of our own citizens and most of the nations have never questioned the sincerity of our protests to Germany in the name of international law, plighted faith, and human rights; but there have been some at home and abroad who have insisted that even such outrageous acts as Germany's should not drive us into war. We have heard it said that democratic England and France were fighting for the principle of self-government, but some one was sure to ask how it came that autocratic Russia was on the same side. President Wilson has told us again and again that a permanent peace must be founded upon democracy, but some of us could not see the way. When at last there came the wonderful events in Russia coupled with new savagery on the part of the German rulers, our President was able to say in plain words what he had been saying all along in general terms, what the growing majority of us had been feeling less and less vaguely: that the outrages against which we had been protesting were merely symptomatic of an evil which was gnawing at the vitals of some of the old-world nations. His address to Congress came as a lightning flash of inspiration to those of us who were still in doubt. That unsparing indictment of autocracy illuminated the issue like a burst of sunshine through a driving storm. "To fight thus for the

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ultimate peace of the world and for the liberation of its peoples, the German people included; for the rights of nations, great and small, and the privilege of men everywhere to choose their way of life and obedience"—here was a motive entirely unselfish, worthy above any other for us especially, because it is the principle on which our national life was begun and of which the world considers us still the most successful exponent. We had borne indignity, insult, and outrage with a patience so far beyond belief that men began to call us cowards, and we bore even that false word because we knew it would be disproved in good time.

And now that the restraint is over, now that belief is being expressed in actions as well as words, we are going on to prove that the uprising of a patient nation is indeed akin to the wrath of God. For now the axe is laid unto the root of the tree; wherefore every tree that bringeth not forth good fruit (and first of all that dwarfed, twisted, moribund tree of autocracy) shall be hewn down and cast into the fire. For the issue is no longer in doubt. Our declaration has already called forth declarations from two of our youngest American sister republics, and we know not how many more nations will enter the lists. The last great war has begun its closing act. America has had, under God, a new birth of freedom, and government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth.

ROBERT CARTER RANKIN

Norwood, O., April 9

PROFESSOR WIENER PROTESTS

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My critic of the "Commentary to the Germanic Laws and Mediæval Documents" in your issue of March 22 says that the Germanic poetry "extant in late form presupposes a long development." Here is the rub. It "presupposes" a long development. I write a book against presuppositions, and my critic condemns me by a presupposition. "Beowulf represents an art already in decline." My critic has forgotten to inform the readers that "Beowulf" has come down to us in just one copy of the eleventh century. It is a long cry from the eleventh century to the fourth. In one of my future volumes I shall show that "Beowulf" is of the same type as the Ossianic poetry, the Arthurian legends, and Morris's "The House of the Wolfings," that is, that it is purely imaginative. This letter permits me only to adduce the single case of *nicor*, to show that "Beowulf" was composed considerably after 800.

The Germanic scholars are agreed that the sea monster *nicor* of "Beowulf" is identical with *nichus*, *nihus* of the Old High German glosses, the equivalent for "crocodile." Not even my critic, by any presupposition imaginable, can pretend that the crocodile is a Germanic beast, unless he allegorically take him for a Prussian militarist. Now this Germanic gloss has arisen from the mediæval Latin glosses "corcodillus animal in Nilo est, bestia in Nilo flumine," while Walafrid Strabo, excerpting Hrabanus Maurus's commentary to Leviticus, quotes Pliny's account of the crocodile, "crocodilum habet Nilus" (VIII, 89), which in the Codex Carolsruh. Aug. CCXXXI reads "crocodrillos ut dicit plinius. habet *nilus*." All the later German glossators to the same passage in Leviticus copy an original blunder of a glossator who mistook "habet" for "Plinius habet," "Pliny calls it." Reading the *l* of *nilus*, which in Visigothic was written invariably as a capital, hardly differing from a small *h*, as *nihus*, and took this to be the equivalent for "crocodile." This ghost word at a considerably later time entered into Anglo-Saxon as *nicor*, "a sea monster," into ONorse as *nykr*, "a hippopotamus," and has ended up in producing German *nixe*, English *nick*. Thus, by no philological rope-walking, can "Beowulf" have even originated before the ninth century.

My critic would have done better to cite the "Heliand," which is datable early in the ninth century, but, alas, the scholars of his own school, Collitz and Gallée, admit that the "Heliand" was written in an artificial literary language, for the simple reason, as I shall show in my later works, that there existed no natural literary Germanic language before the ninth century in which to compose poetry.

I cannot here enter into the critic's censure of my late date for Germanic preterite-present verbs. Apparently my critic is not acquainted with Feist's "Kultur, Ausbreitung und Herkunft der Indogermanen," in which he shows that one-third of the Germanic vocabulary is not Indo-European, nor with the statements of most of the Germanic scholars, including Feist's, that only the group represented by Eng. *to wit* is of Indo-European origin, and that the rest of preterite-present verbs are very puzzling and of late origin. How does my critic know that the fourth century could not have been the time at which they were formed? Is not my documentary proof of *sculta* at least as good as his "presupposition"?

LEO WIENER

Cambridge, Mass., April 2

BOOKS

The Sanction of International Law

The Enforcement of International Law Through Municipal Law in the United States. By Philip Quincy Wright. University of Illinois Studies in the Social Sciences. Vol. V, No. 1.

THE great problem of international law is to perfect its sanction. If we remember the fundamental distinction between questions of international politics and those properly included under international law, it may be confidently asserted that the law of nations is easier to ascertain than the law which is called municipal or national. The popular opinion to the contrary is owing to the fact that public attention is directed principally to the controversial questions which arise when Governments are attempting to violate the law through political motives or else when officials seek to cloak political designs under legal phraseology. Impartial critics must condemn this beclouding of the true principles of international law. It is no exaggeration to state that in all but exceptional instances international law is applied without question. Furthermore whenever the nations are rational enough to submit their disputes to arbitration, it has always been possible to discover and set forth the true principles of the law of nations governing the controversy. The real problem of international law is to indicate the difference between political questions and those of a legal nature, and to develop a public opinion which shall compel all nations to submit legal questions to arbitration.

Dr. Wright in his book has not discussed this preliminary question in regard to the enforcement of international law, but has confined himself to a study of the mea-

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sures which this country has adopted to compel its citizens and others found within the confines of its jurisdiction to observe what Dr. Wright calls "supra-national" law. With a capacity for laborious application he yet possesses the power to dominate the mass of details and present important generalizations, which are the ultimate tests of the value of such investigations. The language employed has the precision and force which we associate with our best judicial writings. Throughout the book the sharp dividing line between that which is municipal and that which is international is clearly drawn. Dr. Wright aims to present a study of the enforcement by the national legal machinery within the United States of those provisions which may be considered as international law. He points out that the importance of this study results from the necessity in the application of the system of "supra-national" law to take action through national officials. The title of his book makes a sharp division between the rules of international law which are observed by the executive and representative branches of the government and those which are enforced by the legal machinery. The peculiar importance of this latter class is that the individual has the advantage of a recognized legal machinery for defending his rights, and no longer has to depend upon the discretionary action of the higher officials of his government. To give an example: municipal regulations, such as acts of Congress, punish offences against foreign representatives. The accused has an opportunity to obtain a fair trial before the penalty enacted by the municipal law in fulfilment of the international obligations of the state is imposed upon him. Again, certain treaties do not require special Congressional action and are directly applied by the courts. Consequently, Americans and resident foreigners have the advantage of obtaining a generally impartial though national interpretation of their rights under such treaties. The obligation to observe the treaty is international, but its fulfilment in the first instance is through the ordinary judicial machinery of the United States. The manner in which the various nations, through their municipal or internal machinery, have established orderly methods of enforcing their international obligations affords one of the best evidences of the extent to which certain portions of international law are observed in practice.

From such studies important generalizations and amplifications of the present system of international law, as actually applied, may be derived. The style, command of material, method of treatment, and unusual power of accurate classification will give Dr. Wright's work a high place among the numerous studies in his subject which are now appearing. His work is both original and sanely conservative. We can find but one point for criticism—perhaps it is almost deserving of commendation—the respectful treatment of authorities whose triviality in certain instances Dr. Wright himself must have appreciated. This very defect will make his book and his conclusions more acceptable to the legalists. Every author is in a certain manner an advocate presenting his thesis, pleading with the vested authorities for the acceptance of his doctrines, and the defect to which we have alluded is well calculated to aid in winning the support of many lawyers. This failing, if such it be, is counterbalanced by the evidence of the widest reading and the inclusion of the most deserving authorities and sources. It is hard, however, to understand why Professor Goodnow's important work on the "Administrative Law of the United States" is not included among the list of authorities in a study to which it is so germane. The administrative law of the United States, which often escapes perception in this country, is nevertheless a well-defined branch of our legal system, and Dr. Wright would have strengthened his volume by some references to those instances in which our officials administer international law. We may add that the precision with which he has avoided inclusion of this material makes it possible in a subsequent work to take up this important phase of the subject without objectionable overlapping or duplication.

Desultory Chapters

Idle Days in Patagonia. By W. H. Hudson. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.

THIS volume differs from the romances by the same author in that there is here no trace of a consecutive plot and we find even more of the wilful wandering, as regards subject, to which this peripatetic observer of nature is prone. In "Green Mansions" or in the "Crystal Age" many a particularity or digression had to be pardoned simply because it was Hudson. A bull or a songster who stopped a young man on the way to his mistress thereby allayed his—and our—ardor. But in the present revamping of "Idle Days" for an American audience, there is no mistress but Nature: "the only woman who can keep a secret, even from a lover."

It is characteristic of Hudson to forget a painful and perilous situation—he has just been shipwrecked—when beguiled by the dawn-singing of birds; when later he sits alone and wounded in the dark, he uses the experience to remark on the sense of hearing among cave-dwelling animals; on the sick-bed his attention is caught by the evolutions of the flies around him. These incidents are symptomatic. The book is frankly a collection of "desultory chapters," of notes about Patagonia, in which three interests predominate—the birds, the free life of the colonists, and, as usual, the scenery and its effect.

As an imaginative ornithologist, Hudson says that he often actually dreams, very delightfully, dreams of some new bird. His sketches of bird-life give the effect of being based on scientific fact and nomenclature; but their interest is largely a human interest, or rather—for Hudson struggles against our "incurable anthropomorphism"—it is the natural interest of the bird, taken for its own sake. Color, song, quaint habits, and instinct seeming intelligence are the gifts chiefly emphasized. One meets here the common finch, a fine-voiced songster; also Progne, the purple swallow; the "dragon eyes of a Magellan owl"; a condor and the crested tinamus and the Calandria mocking-bird. Apposite though somewhat crude illustrations bring out for us Hudson and his feathered friends. In one chapter he insists, contrary to Darwin, upon the frequency and orchestral variety of the melody made by the numerous South American species. A vividly colored eye is one of their chief glories; in nest-building and home management they show their usual sense. In fact, to know birds as Hudson knows them must be a liberal education.

In spite of some criticising of Darwin, Hudson follows his leader, here as elsewhere, in two main respects: he does not sentimentalize nature and he insists on the value of strife. The latter, indeed, was the principal benefit which the Patagonian colonist, a generation ago, could receive

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from rough life in the open. The young Englishman came for bread and he received a precious stone. He was lured by adventure and gold, and he could find, according to Hudson, another and more emancipated happiness—the experience and expansion resulting from the daily changing struggle against nature. For *this* Nature is represented in one fine lyric passage not only as a beautiful wayward Undine, but as a mother of strategy and wars, attacking the works of man through all her myriad children.

Another finely written chapter is that which dwells on the evening primrose, with its strong perfumed connotations of old memories. The best passages in the book, however, from the double standpoint of style and psychological insight, are those which describe the Patagonian plains. A monotonous landscape with a prevailing tone of gray; a sea-green middle band of river, the central fact in the minds and lives of the people; the "romantic isolation" of this colony, with its melancholy burial-places and the large vistas of its valleys; why does Nature "in these desolate scenes . . . move us more deeply than in others"? Probably because the vast uncomplicated spaces give us contact with the whole picture, the details becoming less insistent and more unregarded; and then because this induces a kind of primitivism and there is restored the "old vanished harmony between organism and environment." Such instinctiveness brings with it a strong sense of elation, often borne from our shadowy ancestry:

> We ourselves are the living sepulchres of a dead past—that past which was ours for so many thousands of years before this life of the present began; its old bones are slumbering in us—dead, and yet not dead nor deaf to Nature's voices; the noisy burn, the roar of the waterfall, and thunder of long waves on the shore, and the sound of rain and whispering winds in the multitudinous leaves, bring it a memory of the ancient time; and the bones rejoice and dance in their sepulchre.

After closing this volume, so remote from present-day interests, we feel that the seasons are not the only thing reversed in Patagonia and in Hudson's mind. We wonder why a series of disconnected reflections on birds and beasts and aborigines should leave so individual an impression. That impression is due largely to the personal power of Hudson, a mixture of his appreciation and knowledge of his subject with much naturalness and charm in the setting forth. He doubtless presents essential Patagonia; but he also presents his own sincere nature in a living style—that is to say, defines Anatole France, the capacity for "infinite shades of thought."

The Myths of the Pacific Islanders

The Mythology of All Races. In thirteen volumes. Louis H. Gray, editor; George F. Moore, consulting editor. Vol. IX, Oceanic, by Roland B. Dixon. Boston: Marshall Jones Company.

THE book before us is Volume IX of the series called The Mythology of All Races, which is designed to present a comprehensive account in thirteen volumes of the earliest efforts of the human imagination embodied in tales meant to present ideas regarding the origin of the physical facts of the universe. The idea of such a series is a good one, because the interest of the subject lies largely in a comparison of the various forms which these efforts took, such forms being a test of the quality of the imagination and power of thought which each race has reached at the time when its productive activities began. There is also, of course, a great interest in attempting to determine by the similarities of the myths to one another the racial connections of the peoples who had produced them, though such similarities do not necessarily prove a racial relationship, for it is plain that the human mind has all over the world worked both in thought and in art upon lines bearing a general resemblance to one another. The Hellenic peoples, most naturally gifted among all peoples, stand immensely far from the savages of South Africa or Melanesia, and no one suggests any racial relationship or historical connection between them. Yet one finds beneath the surface of the Greek myths, decorated as these are with the most graceful and varied ornaments of fancy, ideas ultimately similar to those which appear in the crudest form in the genealogical explanations of the origin of the world evolved by the New Zealanders or appearing in the animal stories of African tribes. This is a fact to be remembered and weighed by those who discover in the resemblances which primitive forms of American art present to the forms of Egyptian art some evidence of a connection between peoples so remote in space and time.

In this volume of the series we have a minute account of the myths or legends of the islanders of the Pacific Ocean. These are classified under five divisions, viz.: (1) Polynesia, including the Hawaiian Islands, Tahiti, Samoa, and New Zealand; (2) Melanesia, including Fiji, New Caledonia, and the huge island of Papua or New Guinea; (3) Indonesia, consisting of the many isles, some of them of vast size, which we call the East Indian Archipelago, and including the Philippines; (4) Micronesia, under which name are included a great number of small isles or islets, lying N. of Melanesia and E. of the meridian of 130 degrees east longitude, and lastly (5) Australia and its satellite, Tasmania, formerly called Van Diemen's Land. In these five groups there are a great many tribes and a large, though of course much smaller, number of languages or dialects, together with several tolerably well marked racial types. The tribes are in very different stages of civilization, the least advanced being pretty near the lowest level of human culture. Such were the Tasmanians, now extinct; such are the pygmy races of New Guinea and of some other islands. These last stood or stand at the very bottom. Next above them come some tribes in Papua with a scale of civilization rather higher. Here also may be placed the Australian aborigines. Still higher are the so-called Indonesians and Melanesians, while the lighter colored and better formed Polynesians of New Zealand, Samoa, Tonga, and Hawaii are at the top, having reached, when discovered by white men, a certain amount of culture and refinement. There has obviously been a great mixture of races, and it is generally supposed that the first immigrants from the Asiatic continent were of the lower types, the Polynesians having come later, and having in the western groups blent with the earlier arrivals, while in Hawaii and New Zealand, which the Melanesians may never have reached, they present a comparatively pure type. If the traditions of the New Zealanders can be trusted, they did not occupy that region, then apparently uninhabited, until the fourteenth or fifteenth century A. D. It is not a little remarkable that the colonization of all these Pacific islands appears to have been from the west, *i. e.*, against the trade winds which blow steadily from the coasts of North and South America. There is no trace of any American race

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in any of the groups, and the inhabitants both of Mexico and of Peru seem to have been, when discovered by Spanish explorers in the sixteenth century, almost wholly ignorant of navigation.

The method which the book follows is to examine separately the myths and tales of each of these racial groups, giving characteristic specimens of each, and then endeavoring, in conclusion, to establish some relations among them by examining how far the myths of each group show signs of connection with the myths of the others. As regards the lowest races of all, Tasmanians and Negritoes and pygmies of the western islands, this process cannot be applied, because practically nothing is known of their folklore. The Tasmanians died out before it had been collected, while to the other primitive tribes very few inquirers have addressed themselves. Probably there was and is little to discover. These tribes had scarcely reached the stage at which a real mythology appears. They would seem to have been fetichists or animists. The Papuan myth-type, on the other hand, has been to some extent explored and shows definite characteristics. Its affinities are with the Australian type and seem to indicate a racial connection between the two. There are, of course, marked differences between most of the Polynesian myths, which betoken a higher mental condition, and those of the Australians and Papuans, who are very low down, the Melanesians and Micronesians being superior to the latter but inferior to the former. All have the same quality of grotesque savagery which belongs to their art. Art was at its best in New Zealand, where there is some beauty in the geometric designs and a real feeling for color, though the figures of the deities and all representations of the human form are extremely crude. The themes of the stories are pretty much the same everywhere, viz.: the creation of land and sea and of the heavenly bodies and of living things; the origin of fire, the nature of lightning and thunder, the explanation of the fact that men when they die do not live again, whereas the sun and moon reappear after disappearance. It is interesting to note that many myths represent men as having formerly been immortal, but having lost this quality by some accident or through the malice of some unfriendly power. In these cases it is natural to suspect the influence of missionary teaching misunderstood, but there are grounds for thinking that, in some islands at least, the savage mind had addressed itself to the problem before it came into contact with white men at all.

The want of that poetic fancy which charms us in the Greek myths or of that force which gives a sort of sombre grandeur to the mythology of the Scandinavian peoples and also, though less markedly, to that of the less imaginative Germanic races, renders these Pacific tales comparatively monotonous. Most of them are wild as the strangest dreams or childish to the verge of absurdity. The only exception is to be found in some of the New Zealand attempts to figure forth the successive stages of the evolution of things out of nothing by imagining a series of states of the universe such as the following: "The Void; The First Void; The Second Void; The Vast Void; The Far Extending Void; The Sere Void; The Unpossessing Void; The Delightful Void; The Void Fast Bound; The Night; The Hanging Night; The Drifting Night; The Moaning Night; The Daughter of Troubled Sleep; The Night; The Dawn; The Abiding Day; The Bright Day; Space." Another singular outline of the evolutionary process appears in a Hawaiian myth, too long for quotation in full, but one of which the following is an abridgment: At first there is Night. Then come living things, first among these zoöphytes and corals, then worms and shellfish, then plant life, beginning with seaweeds and rushes. "As type follows type, the accumulating slime of their decay raises the land above the waters, in which, as spectator of all, swims the octopus, the lone survivor from an earlier world. In the next period Black Night and Widespread Night give birth to leafy plants, and to insects and birds, while in the darkness the first faint glimmer of day appears. The Sea brings forth its higher forms, such as medusæ, fishes, and whales, and in the dim twilight monstrous forms creep in the mud. Food plants come into existence. The fifth period sees the emergence of swine (the highest mammal known to the Hawaiians) and night becomes separated from day. In the sixth mice appear upon the land and porpoises in the sea. The seventh period witnesses the development of various abstract psychic qualities, later to be embodied in man; while in the eighth the turmoil and uproar having given place to a condition of comparative peace and quiet, fructified by the light, which is now brilliant, woman is born, and also man, together with some of the higher gods" (pp. 15-16). This sketch of the upward progress of things (if correctly given) is really curious as a product of the primitive Polynesian mind, and deserves to be compared with some of the early Greek speculations.

We have not space to dwell on the animal tales, most conspicuous in the Australian type, and some of them quaintly humorous, like those of Uncle Remus, nor on those, mostly Polynesian, which have a touch of the romantic, but whoever will persevere through the often tedious monotony of the record as a whole will find himself rewarded by very interesting glimpses into savage ways of thinking, and will notice the earliest forms of themes which have survived in the folklore of the Hellenic and Teutonic peoples. The ethnological results, concisely presented in summaries at the end of each part, and in the brief conclusion (pp. 304-9), are interesting as provisional contributions to a vast subject still imperfectly explored. There are a good many illustrations of the rude attempts at art in the figures of mythical beings and in the ornamentation of implements of war and sacred objects.

Notes from the Capital

Chief Justice White

THE recent decision of the Supreme Court, by a divided vote, upholding the constitutionality of the Adamson law, does not, of course, settle the matter finally, as new conditions may arise after the war crisis is past, justifying a demand for a rehearing, as happened in the celebrated legal-tender case. For the present, what has interested most observers of public affairs quite as much as the technical merits of the question at issue is the line of cleavage in the court. That Holmes and Brandeis and Clarke should have been of the majority favorable to the law excites no more wonder than that Day and Van Devanter and Pitney should have been on the other side; but the man whose position aroused real curiosity was the Chief Justice, Edward Douglass White, who, from the beginning of his career as a national personage, has been recognized as a

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business conservative and a strict constructionist wherever the Constitution was concerned, and yet who has shown on two or three occasions a leaning towards liberality.

It was as a stickler for "business rights" that he was sent to Washington to represent Louisiana in the Senate. In that body he combated with all his might, and effectively, the proposed legislation for abolishing speculation in "options" and "futures," his opposition being based primarily on a broad objection to the Government's interfering with private traffic, and secondarily on the means used to this end—taxing a business out of existence, or marking it for destruction on the ground that it was an impediment to interstate commerce. Such methods he considered mere specious disguises of purpose, and hence abuses of the powers conferred by the Constitution upon Congress. Nevertheless, he did not criticise, but vigorously advocated, a protective tax on imported sugar, and apparently had no distaste for the payment of bounties to domestic producers, though to the eye of most of his fellow-Democrats the one seemed wholly foreign to the spirit of our institutions, and the other as serious a misdirection of the taxing power as its use to throttle an obnoxious trade. As Justice, he stood firm against the dissolution of the Northern Securities Corporation as "in conflict with the most elementary conception of the rights of property," yet voted in the "bake-shop case" to sustain the right of a Legislature to say how many hours a baker may hire himself out to work. As Senator he backed up loyally the unwillingness of President Cleveland to take over Hawaii, and registered a stout protest against other schemes looking towards an expansion policy; but when the "insular cases" came before his court he voted with the majority, who held that this nation could possess itself of remote territory and govern people who were not citizens or eligible to citizenship.

Physically, White is of the bulky type: to describe him as large is insufficient. He is so built that he comes very near rolling as he walks; and he persists in wearing, on all except particular occasions, an informal little hat that fits the upper story of his head but gives the lower story an effect of jowliness. His mouth, drooping slightly at the corners, belies his kindly temper and social geniality. His once crisp waves of auburn hair have turned to brown-gray ripples with the flight of time, while the reddish tints of his complexion stand out more vividly. Gowned and seated on the bench, he makes an impressive appearance; and his dignity of deportment and his fatherly manner of treating young and inexperienced pleaders have passed into a proverb. His training in the Senate, where he became noted for his untheatrical but incisive style in debate, proves of value in the court chamber, where painstaking lucidity of statement and distinctness of enunciation have not too commonly characterized the delivery of oral opinions.

He made his judicial way upward over a variegated path. The chances are that a man of so marked quality as a partisan would not have been thought of for the Supreme Court but for certain unusual circumstances. Grover Cleveland, who had received his nomination for the Presidency in 1892 in spite of the hostility of the Democratic faction in his own State headed by Senators Hill and Murphy, was antagonized by the twain at every turn in his Administration. The death of Justice Blatchford left New York unrepresented on the court, and to keep the precedent of nearly a half-century intact the President named successively William B. Hornblower and Wheeler H. Peckham for the vacancy, but both nominations were rejected by the Senate at the instigation of Hill and Murphy. Mr. Cleveland thereupon took pains to make the people of New York see that the loss by their State of its accustomed honor was due not to his indifference, but to the obduracy of the two patronage-mongers whom they permitted to misrepresent them in the Senate, and forced the lesson home by going as far afield as practicable for his next choice, naming Senator White, of Louisiana. This was especially galling to Hill and Murphy, because, though White belonged to a group of Senators most friendly to the President, they did not dare oppose confirmation in defiance of the unwritten rule of Senatorial courtesy which requires immediate approval when a member of the upper chamber is nominated for an executive or judicial office. Louisiana, however, had sent White to Washington quite as much to look out for her interests in tariff legislation as for any other purpose; and at the risk of provoking a deal of invidious criticism he continued his efforts to amend the pending Wilson Tariff bill in behalf of the domestic sugar industry even after he had accepted the invitation to the bench.

Other things being equal, it was probably the fact of his being a citizen of the far South that most strongly moved President Taft to make him Chief Justice. It had been the almost uniform practice to look outside of the membership of the court for its presiding officer. Justice Hughes, as one of Taft's own appointees to an Associate's seat, was widely expected to be his choice if he should seek a candidate for promotion within the court; but it had long been an aspiration of Taft's to provoke a breach in the Solid South, and Louisiana, thanks to the extremity of her geographical location, coupled with her willingness now and then to send a Republican Representative to Congress, seemed an appropriate place to begin. TATTLER

Reviews of Plays

THE MORNINGSIDE PLAYERS

WITHIN the last few months there has been organized at Columbia University a body called the Morningside Players, directed by Hatcher Hughes, an instructor in the dramatic department and curator of the Dramatic Museum. The first presentation, at the Comedy Theatre, was of "The Iron Cross," by Elmer L. Reizenstein, a composition notable rather as a piece of propaganda against war than as drama; its scene was laid in Germany, it was coherent and smooth in workmanship, and was only a little too shrill to be fully effective. It was followed last week by a series of four one-act plays, one of which, a dramatization of R. L. Stevenson's "Markheim," was notably well written and well acted. The author of the adaptation, Zillah K. MacDonald, held carefully to the spirit of the story, achieved her effects with great economy of material, and in the additions it was necessary to make to the action and dialogue of Stevenson showed taste and originality. The parts were played with naturalness and spirit. Of the three other plays, "One a Day," by Caroline Briggs; "The Home of the Free," by Elmer L. Reizenstein, and "Hattie," by Elva De Pue—the first proved a skit with amusing qualities, the second was a burlesque on "modern" ideas of family relationships and duties, and the third was a rather drab piece of realism. A. N.

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"PETER IBBETSON"

LITTLE need be said about the merits of the dramatization of George du Maurier's novel presented at the Republic Theatre. Mr. John N. Raphael, who undertook it, has produced a work which is hardly a play in the usual sense, owing largely to the difficulty of manipulating the spiritual *motif* in clean-cut dramatic fashion. In the novel its effect is cumulative in a subtly pervasive manner; in the play the author, who has of course to deal in definite scenes, is put to it not to seem repetitious, and he does not wholly succeed. One feels the need of the final rounding out of theme while one is at the same time aware of a drag on the attention. Having prepared the audience for the consummation, the author at the close fails to keep pace with their imagination.

In the titular part Mr. John Barrymore gave a really distinguished performance. His poetic conception of the rôle, his repose, and occasional outbursts of passion were true to the author's plan. Mr. Lionel Barrymore as Colonel Ibbetson played with the proper flourish, and Miss Constance Collier as Mary, Peter's persistent inspiration, was a sympathetic and charming figure. F.

OUR attention has been called to a curious error that crept into a notice of Mr. Arliss's revival of "Disraeli" in the *Nation* of April 19, betraying the fact that our reviewer had forgotten that Mrs. Disraeli was raised to the peerage as Viscountess Beaconsfield in 1868, eight years before her husband became Earl of Beaconsfield.

Finance

Our First Share in the Campaign

UNDOUBTEDLY it is the money of the United States which ought to be our first share in the campaign—though every one will hope that the navy will be definitely heard from next. Behind both these fields of activity, the task of providing food and finding ships to carry it stands out as the immediate paramount necessity, and we are likely, in and out of the commercial markets, to hear a good deal more of the concerted work in such directions than even of our advances of money. The swiftness with which events have moved and the point of view has changed is forcibly illustrated when one recalls how, only a few months ago, the proposal for an embargo on export of our foodstuffs got a hearing.

It is somewhat characteristic of our people that the wheat shortage of the world should only now have begun to impress their imagination. Most men who watched the figures of home and foreign production saw what was coming, as long ago as the early autumn months. They knew that the world had raised in 1916 less wheat by nearly a thousand million bushels than a year before, and that, if Russia's blockaded harvest were deducted, the world's harvest was smaller by 700,000,000 bushels even than in the unfavorable crop year 1911. The bad fortune of our early wheat crop during last winter emphasized their view of the situation; so did the desperate experiment of the German submarines. But the general public did not seem to realize the facts until we went to war ourselves.

Just now, attention should be directed to the fact that the period of acute strain will stretch from the middle of this month to the middle of July. We are still exporting wheat in quantity; the shipments last week were larger than those of any other week since January, and, though somewhat below the same week in 1916 and 1915, were much above the normal April average. By midsummer, the new winter wheat crop will be harvested; by autumn the later crops, planted on a probably unprecedented acreage, will be available. It is the intervening period in which the shortness of reserves from last year's crop will cut its most formidable figure.

During that period, it is probable that this country will be brought to closer quarters with the problem of food conservation than ever before in its history, and it will unquestionably profit by the experience as much as will our allies. Meantime the Government authorities ought not to overlook another not wholly unrelated problem—the judicious handling of the country's reserve of capital. No one has suggested such shipment of wheat to Europe as would reduce our people to a German "bread ration," and no one ought to propose the immediate use of our capital and credit on a scale which would create embarrassment later on.

It is perfectly true that the money advanced to our allies is spent by them in purchases from our manufacturers, and therefore will not leave the country. But it is also true that the American financial markets will continue to have on their hands the task of financing legitimate and pressing needs of neutral countries—a task which we took over from our present allies two years ago. The question, exactly how our investment markets will be affected by the large public loans necessitated by our own war expenditure, has not yet been tested.

Until it has been tested, the problem must remain in the experimental stage—especially when price and interest rate on the forthcoming United States bonds are as yet restricted with a rigidity which was not employed in the early war financing of our allies. Thus far, we really have no concerted programme; the action of Congress was merely a more or less circumscribed vote of credit. The impulsive estimates of last week and the conjectures of the Washington correspondents should be read with these general facts in mind.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION

Stacpoole, H. de V. Sea Plunder. Lane. $1.30 net.
Tolstoy, I. Visions. New York: James B. Pond. $1 net.
Wemyss, Mrs. G. Petunia. Dutton. $1.50 net.

MISCELLANEOUS

Jones, R. M. St. Paul the Hero. Macmillan. $1 net.
Mutzenberg, C. G. Kentucky's Famous Feuds and Tragedies. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25 net.
Paget, S. I Sometimes Think: Essays for the Young People. Macmillan. $1.75
Smith, S. K. John Galsworthy. Holt. 60 cents net.
Temple, W. Mens Creatrix: An Essay. Macmillan. $2.50 net.
Thayer, M. R. The Influence of Horace on the Chief English Poets of the Nineteenth Century. Yale University Press.
The Argonautica of Gaius Valerius Flaccus Setinus Balbus. Book I. Translated into English prose by H. G. Blomfield. Longmans, Green. $1 net.
The Mirror of Gesture. Translated by A. Coomaraswamy and G. K. Duggirala. Harvard University Press.
The Plattsburgh Manual. By Lieut. O. O. Ellis and Lieut. E. B. Carey. Century. $2 net.
Thompson, V. Woman. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Through German Spectacles. Reprinted from the *Daily Express*. London: Nisbet & Co., Ltd.
Tynan, K. The Middle Years. Houghton Mifflin. $3.50 net.
Vizetelly, F. H. A Desk-Book of Twenty-five Thousand Words Frequently Mispronounced. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.60 net.
Weeks, A. D. The Psychology of Citizenship. McClurg. 50 cts.
Williams, M. W. Cousin-Hunting in Scandinavia. Badger. $2 net.
Wilson, M. H. An Inductive Study of Standards of Right. Badger. $1.50 net.
Wise, J. E. The Call of the Republic. Introduction by Major-Gen. L. Wood. Dutton. $1 net.
Wyatt, H. Malice in Kulturland. Dutton. 75 cents net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS

"B." The Business of Trading in Stocks. The Magazine of Wall Street. $4.06 postpaid.
Gibbs, W. S. The Minimum Cost of Living. Macmillan. $1 net.
Hobsen, J. A. The New Protectionism. T. Fisher Unwin. 2s. 6d. net.
Kip, F. E. Equal Opportunity for All. Privately printed.
Lewis, B. G. The Offender and His Relations to Law and Society. Harper. $2 net.
Seligman, E. R. A. Principles of Economics. Longmans, Green. $2.50 net.
Smith, J. H. Economic Moralism. Macmillan. $1.75 net.
Webb, S. The Restoration of Trade Union Conditions. London: Nisbet & Co., Ltd. 1s. net.
Young, J. S. The State and Government. McClurg. 50 cents.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

Abbott, G. F. Turkey, Greece, and the Great Powers. McBride. $3 net.
Dilnot, F. Lloyd George. Harper. $1 net.
Treitschke, H. von. History of Germany in the Nineteenth Century. Translated by Eden and Cedar Paul. Introduction by W. H. Dawson. McBride. $3.25 net.

POETRY

Underwood, E. W. Songs from the Plains. Sherman, French. $1 net.
Untermeyer, L. These Times. Holt. $1.25 net.
Weeks, R. Ode to France. Oxford University Press.

SCIENCE

Duncan, F. The Joyous Art of Gardening. Scribner. $1.75 net.
Gilbert, A. W. The Potato. Rural Science Series. Macmillan. $1.50.
McClendon, J. F. Physical Chemistry of Vital Phenomena. Princeton University Press. $2 net.

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Summary of the News

BOTH houses of Congress on Saturday passed the Army bill, embodying the Administration's plan for selective drafting. The vote in the House was 397 to 24; in the Senate, 81 to 8. Minor differences in the two bills remain to be adjusted in conference of the two houses. One of these is the matter of age, which the House has fixed at twenty-one to forty, while the Senate made it twenty-one to twenty-seven. Another concerns Col. Roosevelt's proposal to raise a volunteer division for early service at the front. Amendments favoring this proposal were adopted in the Senate but rejected in the House.

TWO other steps of the first importance mark the progress of the country towards full participation in the war against barbarism. The first loan to any Entente Power under the recently passed finance measure providing $7,000,000,000 for war purposes went to Great Britain on April 25, when Secretary McAdoo handed to Lord Cunliffe, governor of the Bank of England, a Treasury warrant for $200,000,000. Dispatches from Washington state that the next allotment will be of from $250,000,000 to $300,000,000 to France and Italy. A start was made with the Administration's plan for building wooden ships on April 28, when announcement was made that land had been acquired by the Government for a shipbuilding plant near New York, on which operations commenced on Monday. The vessels to be built will be standardized. It is calculated that the first ship will take from four to five months to complete, and that thereafter a ship will be completed every ten days.

M. VIVIANI, Marshal Joffre, and other members of the French Commission received a rousing welcome on their arrival in Washington on April 25. M. Viviani's greeting to the United States, given to newspaper correspondents after he had visited the President, was published on April 26. The interchange of formalities and courtesies of the two missions was virtually completed last week, and departmental conferences have now begun. An appropriate climax to last week's activities of the British and French Commissioners was their pilgrimage on Sunday to Mount Vernon to join with America in graceful tribute at the tomb of Washington, above which flew the flags of the three nations.

PUBLICATION of the British official list of sinkings by mines or submarines for the week ending April 15 aroused anxiety everywhere and a considerable amount of criticism of the Government and the Admiralty in the British press. The increase in losses over those of previous weeks is certainly remarkable. Forty vessels of more than 1,600 tons and two of less than that amount were sunk during the week. Arrivals at British ports were 2,586; sailings, 2,621. Twenty-seven vessels were unsuccessfully attacked.

THAT the food question is for Great Britain one of extraordinary gravity was emphasized by Lord Devonport, Food Controller, in the House of Lords on April 25. Voluntary limitation in the consumption of bread has not reduced the per capita amount to the requisite four pounds weekly, and Lord Devonport indicated that it might be necessary to adopt in the near future a system of rationing for at least two staple articles of diet, bread and sugar. A less gloomy picture was drawn by Mr. Lloyd George in his speech at the Guildhall on April 28. Predicting the failure of the U-boat war, he declared that such steps had been taken by the Government in preparation for the harvest of 1918 as to insure that "without a ton of foodstuffs coming from abroad no one would starve." Still another picture, a very entrancing one for his hearers, was painted by Dr. Helfferich in the Reichstag Main Committee on Saturday. According to Dr. Helfferich, 1,600,000 tons of freight were sunk during February and March, of which more than 1,000,000 tons were British.

WE recorded last week the sinking of a British hospital ship on which, by poetic justice, there were a number of wounded Germans. It remains now to record a characteristic example of the Teutonic mind at work. The Reichstag Main Committee was informed on April 27 that the sharpest reprisals would be adopted by Germany if hospital ships of the Allies allowed themselves to be torpedoed when carrying German wounded.

THE first gun of the war was fired by the naval gun crew of the Mongolia on April 19 at a submarine, and so far as the fact of a U-boat's destruction can be definitely determined, there seems to be no doubt that a clean hit was scored at a range of a thousand yards.

WHILE on the subject of naval operations we cannot refrain from calling attention to the glowing account of the engagement between British and German destroyers which took place off Dover on the night of April 20, and in which two, and possibly three, German destroyers out of the flotilla of six were sunk by two British vessels of the same type. The story of the engagement, which appeared in the papers of April 26, reads like a Marryat romance in which boarding parties figure and cutlasses are used to good effect.

HOME Rule has been much to the fore. Mr. Lloyd George's statement on the question, which was expected last week, had to be postponed, and will probably be made this week. The British Premier alluded to the matter in his speech at the Guildhall, declaring that "settlement of the Irish question is essential for the peace of the world and essential to a speedy victory in the war." Meanwhile the question has been agitated anew, but without bitterness, on this continent. A resolution urging the adoption of Irish Home Rule was presented last week in the Canadian Parliament, and on April 28 a cable, signed by nearly 200 members of the United States House of Representatives, was sent to Mr. Lloyd George, declaring that "nothing will add more to the enthusiasm of America in this war than a settlement now of the Irish problem." Dispatches from Washington state that the matter has been informally discussed by President Wilson and Mr. Balfour.

LABOR troubles on a serious scale were feared in Germany for May 1, all the Socialist organs and official bodies having exercised all the authority they still possess for a week past in a supreme effort to avert them. Whether these frantic appeals by papers like *Vorwärts*, which appears recently to have become the docile servant of the German Government, or the franker threats of Gen. Groener, Minister of Munitions, will have had their effect will probably be known by the time the *Nation* appears. The labor situation in Austria, where it is said definitely that a strike for May 1 has been ordered, appears, as we write, to be extremely serious, and, judging from the somewhat exacerbated comments of the German press on a once-loved ally, there is full realization of the fact in Germany. Meanwhile the German deity continues to drive the unrepentant Junkers to the madness that is the forerunner of destruction. "Let us keep to Bismarck's policy; Germany's future is a future of battle and conquest," is a typical utterance of one of them.

NEWS from Russia is more reassuring. Dispatches last week telling of peasant uprisings and seizures of land, particularly in the Saratov Government, gave occasion for some anxiety, but apparently these disturbances were isolated to certain districts. Later dispatches, especially those recording the disrepute into which the pacifist agitator Lenine has fallen, are encouraging, as is also the news of the big shake-up in the army, involving the dismissal of twenty-three generals and 114 officers at headquarters, which came on April 27. This was followed by a statement (contained in Sunday's papers) by M. Kerensky, Minister of Justice, in which he contradicted various adverse rumors and declared that the army was better prepared and the munitions factories were turning out more ammunition than at any previous stage of the war. General satisfaction was caused by the announcement at Washington on April 26 that Mr. Root had accepted the chairmanship of the special diplomatic mission from this country which is to leave for Russia shortly.

GUATEMALA is the latest of the countries of Latin-America to sever diplomatic relations with Germany. Announcement to that effect was made on April 28. Dispatches of the same date seemed to indicate also a disposition on the part of Mexico to suppress the pro-German element in her Government and population and to align herself more definitely with the United States. The question whether Brazil shall follow up severance of relations by a declaration of war on Germany will be decided by the Brazilian Congress, which convenes to-day.

FURIOUS battles have been raging on the western front, especially along the River Scarpe, where the British have made steady but slow progress, but there is little news of a definite character to record, except that immense German reserves have evidently been hurried to this part of the line and have expended themselves in a series of desperate counter-attacks. A good deal of criticism of the last French offensive has found expression in Paris, and the fact that the post of Chief of Staff has been restored in favor of Gen. Pétain seems to lend point to the criticism. The new post gives Gen. Pétain supreme command of operations without displacing Gen. Nivelle from the command at the front. The official statement of April 28 declared that the French had captured, since April 16, 175 cannon, 412 machine guns, and 119 trench mortars, while the number of prisoners had reached 20,780.

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New Problems for Education

A TEACHER who has merely to teach is rapidly becoming a curiosity. The problem which more and more confronts one is to find time, after she has sent Johnnie home to rewash his face and Susie to the dentist and Jimmie to the oculist and Mary to the specialist in pediatrics; after she has decided that Edwin is a defective child and that Edward is an exceptional child, and taken measures accordingly, to find time to hear the rest recite. The school has become a clearing house for the home, the hospital, and society. Teaching is still done between the intervals of filling out blanks upon the amount of arithmetic needed to meet actual social demands and replying to questionnaires which seek to know whether the prolonged study of grammar yields any actual capacity in the direction of the functional use of grammar in translation, but one gathers that such activity is no more than a concession to tradition. In the school of to-morrow, the pupils will have nothing to do but go and be observed. It will be the teacher who will take problems home. Education, which was invented to give answers, has ended by asking new questions.

Some of these are discussed briefly in the report of the Secretary of the General Education Board for the past year. While the report makes no point of the matter, it is interesting to note how the Board has had to widen the meaning of the central word in its title, and sometimes to enter upon non-educational activities in order to pave the way for its real purpose. At the very beginning of its work, it found that money could be obtained in the South for education only upon the condition that agriculture there prospered. Its first task thus became education, not of boys and girls, or of young men and women, nor of anybody in book-learning, but of farmers in farming. Education in a particular occupation for the sake of increasing the wealth of a section in order that money might be available for education—this was the complicated series of developments upon which the Board felt constrained to enter. If it seems a roundabout method, the justification for it is that a straight line is not always the shortest distance between two points. The modern educator is like the intelligent missionary of this or any other time. He starts out to teach, but may have to play the doctor, the real-estate operator, and the politician before he can invite pupils to take advantage of his presence.

One of the most interesting of these collateral problems of education is the question of homes for teachers in rural districts. In not a few such places, "boarding round" is not only an unattractive, but also an impracticable, solution of the problem. This is likely to be the case especially where rural schools are consolidated. A forward step in education is thus adding to an existing difficulty. The tendency of rural teachers to change their locality frequently, in the hope of finding better living conditions, is aggravated. So far, the problem remains unsolved. One suggestion is presented in the report of the General Education Board:

> It has been suggested that the difficulty can be solved by erecting a teachers' manse in connection with a consolidated rural school. The principal and his wife would thus preside over an establishment large enough to provide for the whole staff; perhaps a well-conducted home on the school grounds might serve as a demonstration to the future homemakers, now pupils in school. Some steps in this direction have already been taken in different sections of the country. For the purpose of hastening the movement to provide suitable homes for the teaching staff of consolidated rural schools, the Board made an appropriation of $25,000, and negotiations to this end are now under way with the State Department of Education of Minnesota and Mississippi.

How much wisdom would Confucius or Plato have left to the world if they had had to find an agreeable boarding-place in a strange community before beginning their discourses?

Education is not like the camel which gradually pushed its whole body into the tent where it had at first asked only the favor of poking its nose inside. It is like a camel which should bargain to carry a passenger across the desert, to find that it must wake him up every morning, shake him off every evening, and see that the water jars were refilled at every oasis. Our consciences bother us if the school plant is not used as many of the twenty-four hours as can be provided for. Here is an agricultural high school—the very name would have aroused wonderment less than a generation ago—in Pearl River County, Mississippi. Being a county institution, "it readily serves as a centre around which instruction on a community basis can be organized." Hence an experiment last summer, when instruction and entertainment were furnished for old and young, with 400 boys and girls and 650 adults enrolled. Two sessions a day gave opportunity for discussion of topics of general concern. The rest of the day was devoted to group conferences, recitations, and practical demonstration work relating to education strictly so-called, shop work, agriculture, and domestic science. "If the enthusiasm of those who attended may be interpreted as significant," we shall be having "folk high schools" serving entire communities through the entire year. What is left of the once plain line between those who go to school and those who do not seems in danger of being utterly wiped out.

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If I Were a School Superintendent

WHEN a child, at about the age of fourteen years, finishes his primary education and enters one of our progressive high schools, he is confronted with a very formidable choice of studies. He may know what he wishes to do, he may be able to get good advice from his parents, he is almost certain to be counselled badly by his fellow-students, who, with the irresponsibility of youth, will warn him against difficult studies and exacting teachers. As a result, his choice is almost certain to be haphazard. And oddly enough, instead of having a definite course of study outlined by his school directors, who would naturally be his best advisers, he finds that they have conspired to throw off all responsibility.

He receives a sheet containing ten different general courses, which in a certain high school are as follows: General, Classical, Domestic Science, Manual Training, Commercial, Art, Music, Boys' Technical Coöperative, Girls' Technical Coöperative, and Agricultural Coöperative. If each of these were a prescribed course, the task of selection even then would be confusing enough. But when it is understood that each general course has many alternative studies offered in each year, it becomes the wise thing just to throw away worry and trust to luck. Taking this curriculum which I have outlined, a mathematician, known for his deliberation and sobriety, has calculated that a boy or girl during the four years of life at a really modern high school has a choice from more than 100,000 different combinations of studies. Surely any freak of the mind should be satisfied in such a freedom, but during the time this essay was being written one or two more subjects have been added to the list, the making of trousers being one of them, and that means a considerable addition to this already respectable number. Such is the richness of modern education and such is the fertility of the scientific pedagogue, who ransacks the world of thought for new specimens of education with the same industry and success with which the naturalist adds to our known species of insects. But with this difference, the new insect is likely to remain merely a name or a dead specimen in alcohol, whereas a new educational discovery must be tried out on luckless living children.

Opposed to this modern scheme of teaching, that all subjects are of equal educational value if they are well taught and diligently pursued, is the idea that the function of the public schools is to offer a selected curriculum of studies which are fundamental in their scope and have been shown by long experience to train a youth to reason accurately, to express himself clearly, and to judge soberly. Whatever may be contended for the long list of studies and of vocations which now occupy the teacher's energy and tax the public purse, we *know* by long experience that a youth who has submitted to a consistent course in English, the classics, mathematics, history, geography, and ethics as the real discipline of education, is prepared to face the exigencies of life. And we know that such a one, if endowed with a fair share of ability and industry, will succeed in the best sense of the word. Such being the case, why is it that the public school authorities have forsaken this certainty and have preferred to travel the present dubious paths which have no definite end? Is it because they tacitly assume that the public of this country is not worthy of as high a standard as obtains in our best private schools and in the schools of England, France, and Germany, in all of which the simpler scheme is maintained?

There is no need of proof to substantiate the statement that there is widespread and justifiable dissatisfaction with our public-school education. Its critics are, to be sure, disorganized and unprepared to point out the cause of the trouble; but sooner or later they must be reckoned with. The discouraging feature of the situation is that apparently little good is accomplished by discussing the general aspects of education. One can point out that gardening, baseball umpiring, hat-making, printing, cooking, and the designing of trousers are useful things in their way, but that they are not education; the answer is likely to be that the world has little need of the cultured man in comparison with the one who can do things. In their folly, educators do not see that trades can be best learned in the places where they are to be done and not in school; and that when a child has left school and has missed, or at least subordinated, the matters of culture, he is very likely never to find them.

It is easy, and it may be wise, to give concrete examples of this dissatisfaction. The same mathematician who calculated the combinations of courses in a high school sent out a letter to 105 persons of his own city who had attained success in many different lines and another letter to 99 persons of distinction in the country of widely different occupations and training, asking them whether they preferred a simple system of education based largely on the classics and mathematics or the present indiscriminately complex one.

The answers received showed that 59 believed that mathematics should be required and the classics should be optional through a high-school course; 108, that both should be required; 18, that either requirement was satisfactory; and only 12 preferred that both mathematics and the classics should be elective. In contrast to the fact that one-half of such a class of men is convinced that both should be required and three-fourths that mathematics should be obligatory and the classics offered to all high-school pupils, we have the following typical pedagogical divisions in a high school:

Out of the ten courses offered:

	No. of courses.	Percentage of pupils.
Math. required for more than two years.....	2	40
Math. required two years; optional two years..	2	30
Math. required two years or less (in one course a very inferior grade called commercial math. is substituted)	6	30

Latin or Greek is required in one course which contains fifteen pupils. Greek is not optional in any other course. Latin is optional in four academic courses which comprise nearly all the pupils. But as they are in each course permitted to substitute modern languages if they find it distasteful or difficult, the effect is practically that of killing its thorough study.

A letter was addressed to the school authorities of Cincinnati some years ago, signed by almost every professor and assistant professor in the College of Liberal Arts and the College of Engineering of the University of Cincinnati, stating that in their opinion the best preparation

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for pupils in the public schools who expected to attend the university would require them to study the classics and mathematics.

Such deliberate statements receive but little response from school authorities, who, while they profess to be guided by experience and to aim for practical results, do not turn to men of experience for advice when organizing a curriculum of study, but to doctrinaires and pedagogical enthusiasts who devise new systems of education overnight.

Somewhat discouraged by this state of affairs, I ventured to express my regret that we were choosing the worse of two methods of education in an essay which appeared in the *Nation*. The approval which it aroused made me feel that a very large number of teachers are coerced factors in our pedagogic scheme. In particular, a certain teacher, who has had a very large experience, but whose reticence and independence of thought will prevent him from ever filling the position of superintendent of schools, suggested to me so satisfactory a form of school government that I believe it my duty to make public his ideas.

If I were a superintendent of schools, he told me, I should in my own mind divide the children into three general classes: First, the really deficient ones who by mental infirmity or by the accidents of environment are incapable of learning; those who fall behind year after year until they become a terrible drag to teachers, to themselves, and to their fellows. A second class would comprise those who cannot expect, or who do not desire, to remain in school any longer than the statutes of the child labor laws require and who will carry on the cruder and more mechanical work of the world. And lastly, I should regard as a third class those children who by ability and by favorable circumstances are able to finish a high-school course and of whom many will go to college. While doing justice to the first two classes, I should consider the needs of this third class with special solicitude, in the belief that it contained the material which would direct public thought and would form the steadying element in a true democracy.

For each of these classes, although for diverse reasons, the important thing is to substitute simplicity for the complex and overburdened curriculum which is now offered indiscriminately to all. Instead of catching at each new fad and loudly proclaiming that my schools were in the vanguard in adopting programmes of study designed to indulge the casual whims of each child, all teachers would be impressed with the idea that they must emphasize the fact that English grammar and literature, the classics, mathematics, history, geography, and ethics have been and always will be the foundation of the best education in this country. If teachers quietly and persistently dwell on this fact to children and to their parents, there will be much less laxness of discipline among children and much less of criticism by parents who see vaguely that something is at fault in education and, as a consequence, wrongly jump to the conclusion that their children are not attending progressive schools. There is the further advantage that children who have this disciplinary background will have an abundance of time to take the few courses which are expedient in developing individual tastes and in preparing for future vocations, whether mental or manual.

When selecting teachers, and especially when promoting them, the chief requisite is to find those who have shown their individuality and have preserved their integrity of mind rather than to make them feel that the only safe road to the higher positions lies in docile conformance to a rigid system of education promoted by teachers' colleges and by the National Education Association.

While successful teaching does depend on method of presentation, it owes much more to substance of knowledge and to the freshness and vividness of instruction which follow when a teacher is broadly and deeply educated and is imparting knowledge according to a sound general method modified by individuality. When one stops to realize that education is the giving to the pupil of the knowledge and experience of life which the teacher has absorbed and digested, it is preposterous to suppose that there can be any exact scientific method of pedagogy, based on impersonal postulates and developed by general laws. What our pedagogues are teaching to neophytes as a "scientific" method of education is merely a set of empiric rules which relate to maintaining discipline, carrying on the business of schools, and guiding the education of little children. These things are important enough and deserve attention, but they are secondary to the real function of the teacher.

The young teacher undoubtedly avoids worry and mistakes by learning beforehand rules of government formulated from the experience of others. But, like logic, the method of teaching is far better acquired by practice than by precept. A few months in a schoolroom, acting as an assistant to an experienced teacher after a sound college course, will prepare a person for teaching more effectively than the solemn and vapid pedagogical courses on "How to Teach Mathematics" and on "How to Teach History," etc., which are too often given by professors of education who know precious little mathematics or history to young women who know less.

What educators fail to emphasize is that, in the primary grades, where little children are taught to read and cipher, method of presentation is more important than knowledge. However stupid the teacher may be, it can be assumed that she knows much more than the little children, and however badly they may be taught all will ultimately acquire the ability to read and cipher. Thus the chief aim of instruction in the lowest grades is to train the pupils to do their tasks as quickly and as easily as possible. And the good points of pedagogy are shown by the fact that by modern methods little children learn to read and to cipher more quickly than in the past. But just as the child advances, so does the importance of method decrease and the value of substance increase, until in the university instruction should be highly individualistic, an expression of personal ideas.

It is only just to say that the method of training and appointing teachers is much better now than it used to be, but it is still capable of improvement. It used to be common for members of education boards to consider one of their pleasantest perquisites to be the finding of comfortable berths for indigent female acquaintances. It was their idea that the Creator provided women with breasts at which children could obtain intellectual nourishment as naturally as babes do their material food. To overcome the scruples of those who felt that the profession of teaching required some little preliminary training and education, an anomalous kind of school grew up which received the extraordinary name of Normal School, as if the education received in colleges were a curious, abnormal acquisition. And while these still linger, it is pleasant to think that their day is over and that they are dying out. With the rise of

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coeducational and women's colleges, the opportunities for a genuine higher education became possible to women. But with the custom already established of depending on them to direct our public-school education, it was natural that professional courses, aimed to prepare for teaching, should be introduced into college curricula for women.

At first occupying a rather minor position, these departments of pedagogy have expanded into faculties of separate colleges for teachers. These, in turn, have leagued themselves with local school boards and have obtained so firm a grasp on the appointment and promotion of teachers that they have become absolute dictators in demanding what proportion of time shall be given by these students to their methodological studies, and in involving teachers in the web of their system. Thus, from being properly a secondary factor in college instruction, pedagogy is now the principal educational discipline of nine-tenths of the women students of our coeducational colleges. And, because of the large numbers and lack of selection, this class of semi-professional students has reacted on our colleges of liberal arts to lower seriously their standards.

To become a teacher of a city public school, it is now generally required that at least two of the four years at college shall be spent under the direct supervision of the faculty of a college for teachers, and mostly in professional pedagogical studies. In some States a teacher's certificate cannot be obtained unless the candidate has given three years to this work. Now, the simple fact of the matter is that not enough real work is possible in pedagogy to occupy more than a small fraction of this time, and the result is gross and disgraceful padding. It is a well-recognized fact in academic circles that students of any real ability and ambition know and complain bitterly that they are not getting in those courses an education which requires study and thought; they would prefer to spend more time in subjects in the humanities and sciences which attract them and which they expect to teach; they are restive under the irritating trivialities of courses on "How to Teach Mathematics" or "How to Teach History," etc.; but they submit because they know that without the prescribed dose of pedagogy and without the personal endorsement of the professors of a college for teachers the job is not obtainable. It seems to be almost impossible to loosen the grasp of this system on our teachers so long as the faculties of colleges for teachers can rely on the docility of women while they are students and on their obedience to authority when they become teachers; these alone prevent an insurrection against such an Oriental dictatorship. Boards of education in some cities have greatly increased this inbreeding and consequent power of the system by placing graduates of one, or perhaps two, designated colleges for teachers on a preferred list; and still worse, they, at the same time, employ the members of these same faculties to select and to supervise the teachers who had been formerly their pupils. Thus every prospective teacher, while in college, knows that her chances of appointment and of all future promotion are dependent on her docility in class and on the personal approval of her professors of pedagogy. No system could have been devised which would be more discouraging to individual work and to wholesome criticism on the part of teachers, or which would be better calculated to drive men out of the profession of teaching. All must submit to the system or forego hope of promotion.

A wise superintendent of schools will keep absolutely free from an alliance with any training college; he should open his lists to a competition as wide as possible, and he must insist that the education of his teachers be more and more in cultural subjects and less and less in methods, the higher the grades in which they wish to teach. And instead of making it a practice to fill positions in the high schools by promotions from the lower grades, he should select teachers for these higher positions whose training is that required of college faculties. Above all, let him be certain that the supervisors of his teachers are in no way connected with the faculty of a teachers' college which has prepared his teachers. Only in this way can the vicious combination between schools and teachers' colleges be broken.

My friend said further: Let us assume that a good corps of teachers has been appointed and that they are sincerely desirous of giving the best service to the community. Even this does not insure success. It is still quite as necessary to fix upon a real standard and to maintain that standard in spite of outside and inside pressure. To-day the cry is for uniformity and practical efficiency. The standards of education are fixed for the whole country by the National Education Association, which meets once or twice a year. A huge, unwieldly body of teachers, superintendents, and academic educators meets for a week; listens to speeches and makes excursions. During this period of intellectual abandon and mental intoxication numerous committees on every conceivable phase of the work are sitting and each member is devising plans for pushing a little more of his specialty into the curriculum. Then come the final adjustments; desultory reports are read and resolutions made; but under the skilful leadership of a few, who for manipulating meetings need take no lessons from a political caucus, the real work is done and the system is welded a little tighter.

This system is rapidly changing the character of public education and is making of it a thing to be scorned. Stung by the taunts of the shallow-minded that the schools do not make children efficient, that they leave school to enter trade or business with book-learning, but with no practical knowledge, so that they must begin at the bottom, our educators are now keen to show that they, too, can meet the man of the world on an equal footing. The result is, they are replacing the discipline which the school is fitted to give by work which is practical and vocational in name, but which is utterly incapable of replacing the old trade apprenticeships. They should have met these criticisms that the schools were inefficient by simplifying the curricula, by weeding out those studies which at best merely give expediency, and then by retorting on the public the firm answer: "If we give our time to prepare the minds of the children to think correctly, the least you can do is to take the time to train them afterwards to work properly when they go to the places where the work is actually to be done."

Those who are advocating the new system do not admit this charge: they say that the older studies are still taught and that new and more useful things have been added so that children may have both mental training and practical cunning. Latin and Greek and mathematics still have their teachers, but the people no longer support them and the pupils shun them, so that the demand for the other subjects they do want must be supplied. But this argument is disingenuous, since the school authorities, in endless ways, are fostering the evils which some of them may privately

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deplore. Their speeches, their appropriations for costly industrial grade and high schools, their exploitation in the press of new courses in printing, in tailoring, and in baseball umpiring, their half-hearted comments in the same papers that Greek and Latin are so neglected that they cannot *conscientiously* take the people's money to maintain courses and teachers in those subjects for so few pupils—all these methods and many others react on parents and influence children to take the path of least resistance and of the greatest vogue. They also affect the teachers who see others with little training and less culture rising rapidly in pay and rank because they have submitted to the system or are teaching those vocational subjects which require little intellect and no laborious preparation; while they themselves, after years of hard work, are not advanced and are not prominently in the public notice. What impression is given when the teacher of baseball umpiring is featured in the press and the teachers of Greek and Latin are reduced in numbers; or when the instructor in manual training or gardening receives the same salary as the teacher of mathematics or physics; or when a teacher of one of the great sciences cannot get the most necessary equipment and at the same time a general course in coöperative agriculture is begun in a city high school which contained in the last report two students? And when the bias of the superintendents is shown so clearly, should they be surprised because most educated people are protesting against the general flabbiness and slackness of the public schools and are sending their children to private schools if they can afford it?

At a recent meeting of school superintendents and principals held in Cincinnati, in order to show the guests the equipment of its schools and the aims of its educational system, a descriptive book was printed which so openly advertised and exploited the fads and neglected the sound work that I have merely to quote a few statements to make the point seen.

Of the seventy-seven pages devoted to describing the work in the elementary schools, with the exception of four pages on the teaching of German, music, and art, not one word is given to the subjects conducive to mental training. The balance is devoted to manual training, domestic science, vocational and pre-vocational education, civics, mouth hygiene, little mothers' leagues, and classes for every conceivable kind of a boy or girl except one of real ability.

Now contrast the statements of equipment:

The Guilford School—All grades, domestic science, manual training, kindergarten, gymnasium, showers, plunge, orchestra, dental clinic, open-air room, roof playground, prevocational school, departmental plan in grades seven and eight.

The Clifton School—All grades, kindergarten, gymnasium.

Woodward High School—Cosmopolitan, ten courses, auditorium, library, domestic science, manual training, art, laboratories, lunch room, gymnasium, plunges, locker rooms.

Walnut Hills High School—Academic courses only.

Any of these things may be useful or pleasant, but when so complex a multitude of them are included in the schools, one is no longer surprised that teachers have no opportunity to teach or children to learn the simple studies which really educate. And one also wonders at the patience of the public in bearing such lavish and foolish expense. Can we not readily imagine the hesitating shame of the resident pedagogues and the contemptuous indifference of these visitors if any of them by chance inspected the Walnut Hills High School, where they have academic courses only, and where they would be able to see nothing but classes pursuing this obsolescent kind of work? No wonder the residents of that section of the city are now replacing it by a new high school which promises to outdo all others in cosmopolitanism.

Finally, my friend reiterated that the highest duty of a school superintendent was to weed out of schools the children who are really deficient and to place them in separate classes or schools. Of the remainder, there are the two general classes: first, those who go through school in a more or less indifferent fashion and who need merely a good, sound training; and secondly, there is a large class of able boys and girls who could go much faster than they do at present if they were collected in separate classes and who are capable of receiving the best instruction. It should be the chief aim of teachers to see that this class is taught so that our country may come to the level of the intellectual classes of Great Britain, France, and Germany.

Instead of being keen for appropriations to maintain classes in umpiring, in printing, in hat-making, in dairying, and a thousand other trivial things, it would be more to the purpose to ask the electorate for the use of a small sum of money so that no child of ability, because of poverty, would be forced to quit school before a high-school course could be completed.

LOUIS T. MORE

The Well-Paid College Professor

SINCE I have no right to pose as a sublimated idealist I had better begin with two frank statements. The first is that I am not given to self-pity and want no man's sympathy. I relish the life I am leading, and the prospect of the future. But the second is that I like what money can buy and should be glad to have my income much greater. I should not even object to a handsome endowment if I could go on with my work. I am, therefore, not eligible to membership in the Society of the Poor-but-Proud. I already have more to spend than a good many business acquaintances, and in fact all that I am willing to earn. If my yearly budget is no larger, it is for three reasons: I don't want more enough to work for it; I have not advanced to the limit of my profession; and I have not acquired riches by inheritance or marriage.

I.

I am a professor more or less by accident. When I went to a little New England college something over twenty years ago, it was on the tacit assumption that I was on the way towards professional life. I had no professional bias, but I did have a disinclination for business. At college I learned practically nothing. I didn't even find out whether I was able to study. I achieved no honors and no failures. Yet at the end of a pale-gray college career I refused to accept a position as a favored appointee in a big manufacturing concern, preferring to go into teaching. There was no real decision in this, for I was still carried along by the drift which had taken me into college in the first instance. When my commencement came I had no po-

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sition, nothing but a kind of first option on an appointment that an older friend might give up during the coming winter. To keep myself in countenance I went to a graduate school, and out of more than a hundred men who received the master's degree in the following June I was one of the two candidates from small colleges who gained it on the basis of one year's study.

I don't say that I earned it, but during that winter I discovered that I had some student zeal and capacity—not too much, but enough, as it were, to "float me." In the meantime my friend had considerately vacated and I undertook his position, holding it for four years. Two would have been enough, for in that time I made sure that I wanted to get away from that place, but to stay in teaching. Not "in due time," but considerably later I went back to graduate study in one of the great universities. There were openings, of course, as there always will be in such institutions, and I've been there ever since, advancing slowly till I am well up the hill and able to peer over on the topmost plateau. Now, to come to the subject, the salary has been enough to keep body and soul together, but not enough to procure what I wanted for my growing family, and so for the last dozen years I have earned a little more than half my total income in educational activities aside from my university teaching. As a result of the dissipation of energy caused by going after these extra dollars I am probably from two to four years behind where I might have been in academic advancement; but the net returns for that delay have been over $25,000 in cash *plus* the enriching experience which came with the earning of it. I have spent the money, but I still have the experience, and I am a better student and a wiser man for it to-day.

I earned this extra money by honest labor. Much of it came from odd jobs logically related to my subject of instruction. I have revised advertising and interpreted contracts. I have tutored, planned work for reading circles, given correspondence courses. I have taught extra-collegiate classes and lectured to university-extension audiences, women's clubs, teachers' institutes, and at school and college commencements. I have even post-prandialized for generous fees. I have read manuscripts, revised and reviewed other people's books, and written books and articles of my own. And I have done my share of administrative work both summer and winter. The experience hasn't been as miscellaneous as it looks, because it has been spread over so many years that by measuring my days I have had a good margin of time for reading and study and even some for thinking. Moreover, while there has been more or less wear and tear in the combining of these incidentals with the real work of study and teaching, the energy which went into them would not have been wasted if it had not been paid for in the coin of the realm. The rich and varied returns have been an unexpected, if not unearned, increment, for the price I set on that part of my time was merely the money it would bring in.

II.

A man is paid for his labor in terms of time or space—freedom of movement or freedom of schedule. The fortune-maker achieves freedom of movement; he may go where he pleases—into his clubs, and the theatres, and the expensive shops, and the fashionable residence districts. He may consort with the learned or the convivial, or even with Amaryllis in the shade. He may use his own car, or, if the distances are too great for that, he may enjoy *de luxe* trains and cabin accommodations. But if he earns these privileges he earns them by years of close-packed, driving days, days which he sells for the freedom of movement he hopes they will some time bring. So that he makes himself a time servant in order to be space free, and when he succeeds, as the very small minority do, he is an object of envy on account of the liberty which he has so dearly bought.

In contrast to him the artist and the scholar who work up to corresponding successes, whether consciously or not, sell their incomes for freedom of schedule. They do pretty much as they please with their days. They take time to think and to talk, and when they work—except for the barest minimum of a schedule—they are working at the things they elect to do from hour to hour, doing work which in itself is as enjoyable as any constant factor in their lives. So they are compensated for the dollars they do not receive by their enormous freedom of programme. Here is my own case, for example—eight hours a week of class during about thirty-three weeks in the year. That is my fixed schedule. I put in at least fifty hours more each week in reading and writing. I can take my exercise practically when I choose. For three whole days out of every seven I am absolutely foot-loose, and, although there are not many days when I don't know the feeling of honest fatigue, my fatigue is of my own choice, and in one hundred and sixty hours of the week I know I am free to loaf or to work at option. The sense of liberty is an enormously important factor in life; and in my case I get it in a way other than through that of the daily routine. For I have the comfortable assurance that when I come along the road to the sixty-fifth milestone, I'll find the pot of gold which is technically known as a "retiring allowance" or by the crude-spoken as a "pension."

When, therefore, I read articles on the meanness of estate of the college professor I am stimulated to a variety of speculations, the chief of which are two: (1.) Are the unhappy indigents competent in their profession? Would their rewards in money and leisure be greater if they were in some other profession or in business? (2.) Are they earning up to their reasonable capacity now, or are they spending the margins of their time and energy in the exhausting occupation of feeling abused? And these two lead up to a kind of summarizing query as to whether they have any real ground of complaint in the sheer, sordid matter of dollars and cents. It is impossible to discuss any of these points without annoying most of my colleagues. In fact, I have appreciated for years that to introduce the subject among professors was to irritate the few who thought I was serious, and to bore the majority who were sure I was merely talking for effect. But I am emphatically serious, not merely because I would much rather be an offence than a bore, but because I have so often been both bored and offended by the cheap complainings of others about professorial poverty.

Economically speaking, life is not a bed of roses for any class of money-earners. The overwhelming majority of men in the business world are living on professorial incomes, and there are only a few among doctors, lawyers, and clergymen who can rent or build better than the professor. Of course, the minorities do have more money, and in a very small percentage of cases a great deal more. But they work harder and longer and in more expensive ways

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for what they obtain. They put their capital and their energy at stake and get what they can out of the venture. Even the professional men rent offices and employ clerical help as necessary business investments. If the public enjoys an epidemic of health or of non-litigation, physician and lawyer pay the price in diminished incomes. In contrast, the professor is assured of his income, receives a place to work, is supplied with his library or laboratory and with leisure to use them, and finally is pensioned in old age. If in these circumstances he hasn't all the money he needs for moderate comfort, he has ways of earning it and time at his disposal. When, however, in spite of this, he does not earn what he needs, the question as to his earning power in the open market is very much in doubt; and if his earning capacity, being undemonstrated, is thus in doubt, it is still to be shown why the professor, out of all human kind, should as a class be selected for even more generous treatment than is now accorded him.

I don't believe that many men are holding positions in college because they think the profession is a noble and worthy sacrifice. I believe that many are in the lower ranks because they drifted there, and that many have stayed in those ranks because they haven't enough energy to go under their own steam, not even enough to steam into some other kind of work, because in their own hearts they doubt if they are more than drifters in any current. And I believe that the men who are accomplishing things in college and university work are doing them because they would rather be at their present jobs than at any others. Not that scholarship is worth a sacrifice, but that nothing else is worth the bother. Now many of these men have market values. Many of them could go into business and receive much higher money pay, *if they were willing to sell their time.* But they are so constituted that they couldn't do this and get any pleasure out of life, and the wise ones have no complaint to make. They either accept the modest competency that their relatively high ability brings them, or they increase it moderately by the skilful sale of a part of their margin of time.

In a word, I altogether doubt that the college professor who is really hard up would be anything but hard up if he were in the business world. He is not of the sort who hath and to whom more shall be given.

If he needs extra income, it is worth repeating, the competent man can get it in one or more of the ways suggested; but he mustn't expect the harsh and unsympathetic world to offer it to him with an apology for intruding it on his attention. He must know, or must be taught, that a dollar is a perfectly respectable thing and that the desire for a dollar to be spent on the necessaries of life is also respectable. He must demonstrate that his services have a value and he must exact that value for them; and he must hold his head up all the time, just as any other business man does: because earning dollars for their own sake is a clear-cut business undertaking. One trouble with a good many college pedagogues is that they hold their chins out as well as their heads up. They are emphatic in their dislike of everything connected with opulence, except the opulence itself. "Riches," they say with fine inconsequence, 'are attended by sordidness and vulgarity. We don't like the rich, but our academic distinction makes us attractive to them. They invite us to their houses and tables, and the contrast between their conditions and ours makes us discontented. We wouldn't for the world go into business, but it is very unfair that we should not have our freedom and the successful business man's income to boot." There isn't any profit in arguing with people who talk in this way. I have tried it, as I have said. They not only compare careers which are not comparable except to the nicer discriminations, but they insist on comparing the fate of mediocrity among themselves with the lot of excellence in the world at large.

IV.

I have suggested some comparison between the rank and file of the college world and the general rank and file of intelligent people. Between failures and failures the likeness is obvious. It remains to comment on academic and scholarly success. The really egregious professor is a highly enviable man. He is one of two or three hundred in the whole country, one of a half dozen among the scholars in his own field, a marked man in his own community and internationally well known. He receives the maximum salary in a university (five, six, or seven thousand dollars), or if he is still in a college he has stayed there in the face of repeated calls. He is invited to distinguished lectureships and accepts sparingly from the frequent invitations to speak for substantial fees. If at some stage in his career he has given some of his margin to the writing of textbooks, his returns from these are not insubstantial. More likely, however, if he is really eminent, if he has in him the greatness which belongs to the highest literary or scientific scholarship, he has an honest disregard for whatever is not included in the salary check; and this check is large enough, for he has the wealth which comes with modest wants.

The money compensation, however, and even the time freedom are only the beginning of his rewards, for he has a real prestige which is high above these. Honor, love, obedience, troops of friends are his perquisites; universal respect a by-product of his life work. The situation can hardly be overstated in fact, although it is hard not to overstate it in the tone to which one is tempted. The eminent scholar should not be presented as either a prig or a hero, and even less as—in the ordinary sense—a successful man. He is not to be held up with all his emoluments like a $30,000 salary before the eyes of calculating youth. Real eminence in scholarship would always be lost in the seeking. It comes of a single-mindedness which cannot see beyond the scholarship to the potential reward. Yet the royal reward is there. For the next level, however, even the calculable reward is fine and handsome. The *Saturday Evening Post* type of industry-plus-acumen can count upon a substantial return in dollars and sense, though not what might compensate him for an equal investment of brain and energy in banking or commerce or manufacture.

For my own part I ask for nothing better. I have enough to keep me and mine fed and clothed and housed and heated. The rough and tumble so far have been no mean part of my education. From now on I'll neither speak nor write what does not come straight from the bottom of my liking for my profession and my subject. I am on the verge of respectable achievement, but a long way from eminence; and though I *could* spend (ah, how choicely I *could* spend!) a great deal more than I shall ever have, I wouldn't sell the next twenty-five years and what I propose to do with them for any earthly price. W-P. C. P.

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Axel Olrik

WITHIN the last year the *Nation* has kindly afforded me space to speak of two distinguished scholars, one an American, the other an Italian, who devoted themselves to folklore and mediæval fiction. I refer to J. S. Tunison and Giuseppe Pitrè. More recently I mentioned in these columns the amazing activity of Scandinavian scholars in this field, and alluded to one of the most famous of them all, Axel Olrik, professor of folklore in the University of Copenhagen. Alas, that I should so soon be called on to commemorate his death, which has been scarcely noticed in the turmoil of the war! Some day his scholarly achievements will be duly honored; meanwhile I venture a brief account of his tireless activity, which should be a wholesome stimulus to us all. I am indebted to my friend Haldor Hermannsson, curator of the Icelandic Collection in the Library of Cornell University, for a knowledge of Olrik's Scandinavian studies.

Axel Olrik was born in Frederiksberg July 3, 1864. His father was a well-known painter and sculptor, whose four sons were all distinguished men: one became a judge of the Superior Court, two others historians of note, the fourth is the subject of this notice. Axel studied Scandinavian philology at the University of Copenhagen and won the gold medal of the University for an essay on the age of the Edda. He took his master's degree in 1887 and his doctor's in 1892, his thesis dealing with an attempt to distinguish between two sources of Saxo's Danish history, the Danish and the Norse-Icelandic, a subject which he followed up in another work, "Sakses Oldhistorie, Norröne Sagn og Danske Sagn," published two years later, in 1894. During his university studies he was especially attracted to Svend Grundtvig, who, until his death in 1883, held the position of *docent* in Scandinavian philology. Later Olrik studied at the University of Christiania under Sophus Bugge and Moltke Moe. Just this last year Olrik wrote a touching memoir of his beloved friend and teacher Moltke Moe, to which I referred in the *Nation* for December 21, 1916.

After having taught as *privat-docent* in the University of Copenhagen for two years, Olrik was appointed *docent* in Scandinavian folklore, and made professor in 1913. He was Director of the Danish Folklore Collection in the Royal Library in Copenhagen from 1905 to 1915; one of the founders of the Folklore Fellows, 1907, and from 1910 was one of the editors of the "FF Communications" (see the *Nation* cited above); editor of the Danish periodicals *Danske Studier* (from 1904) and *Fra Dansk Folkemindesamling* (from 1908). He was a member of the Scientific Academies of Copenhagen, Christiania, Helsingfors, Berlin, and Amsterdam.

Grundtvig had left unfinished his edition of "Danmarks gamle Folkeviser"; Olrik completed the fifth volume (1890), and later continued the work by editing three volumes of "Danske Ridderviser" (first vol. 1898), based on the material collected by Grundtvig. He also edited a selection of the Danish ballads (1899-1909) with popular music, and an edition of Danish heroic tales ("Danske Heltesagn," 1900), with illustrations by L. Frölich. In 1912 he edited Danish fairy tales and popular stories which he had collected ("Danske Sagn og Eventyr fra Folkemunde").

Olrik's greatest work was "Danmarks Heltedigtning," studies on the Danish heroic legends. The first volume appeared in 1902, dealing with Rolf Krake and the older line of the Skjoldungs, the second in 1910, with Starkad the Old and the younger line of the Skjoldungs. The third volume has been in preparation and was to treat of Harald Hildestand and the battle of Bravalla. Whether this was finished, I do not know. These volumes are in a way a continuation of his earlier studies of Saxo's History, but they by no means deal exclusively with the Danish legends. The author dwells at length upon English and other Germanic legends for the purpose of comparison. It is written with the great thoroughness characteristic of the author and in a lucid and attractive style. This work is now being translated into English and is to be published by the American-Scandinavian Foundation.

Numerous indeed are Olrik's contributions to Scandinavian philological and historical periodicals. Some of these articles have also appeared separately in book form. Among the most important of these may be mentioned his two treatises on Ragnarök (1902-14), in the first of which he deals with the story as told in Scandinavian sources, tracing the various *motifs*, their age and origin. In the second he treats similar *motifs* met with in the mythology of other tribes and nations, such as the Greeks, Persians, Hindus, etc., so as to discover the origin of the Ragnarök myths. Of other essays on mythology by him are noticeable: "The Myths of Loke" (1911) and "Loke in Modern Popular Tradition" (1908-9), "The Thunder God and His Servant" (1905-06), all of which appeared in *Danske Studier*.

At the International Congress in Berlin in 1909 Olrik read an interesting paper on the epic laws in popular poetry, which was published later and is of importance for all students of ballads and popular poetry.

To a series of works in Danish on the history of civilization he contributed "Nordisk Aandstiv i Vikingetid og tidlig Middelalter" (1907), translated into German by W. Ranisch under the title "Nordisches Geistesleben in heidnischer und früh-christlicher Zeit," a brief, comprehensive, and well-written survey of the intellectual life in the North in the age of the Vikings and in the first centuries after the introduction of Christianity. This work he dedicated to his friend and teacher Moltke Moe.

My personal interest in Olrik began with the publication of the "FF Communications" (1911-16), reviewed by me at length in the *Romanic Review*, No. 1, 1916, with supplementary note in the *Nation*, December 21, 1916. The great enterprise of an international folklore association is due to Kaarle Krohn and Axel Olrik, and dates back to 1907. How successful has been the undertaking may be seen from the twenty-three numbers already published and the establishment of local societies in nineteen of the principal cities of Europe. The huge National Collection of Folklore in Copenhagen has been made accessible to the students of other lands, and facilities have been provided for the copying of material wherever a branch of the Association has been founded.

Olrik was very grateful for my review of the "FF Communications," and in conjunction with Professor Krohn, of Helsingfors, appointed me "representative of the bureau of folklore information at New York."

In a letter written from his home at Holte (a suburb of Copenhagen) on December 2, 1916, he asks indulgence for some delay in the "FF Communications," and attributes it

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to his illness in the autumn. "I had gone," he says, "to Christiania for exchange lectures and was attacked by an inflammation of my ear and obliged to undergo a severe operation and remain a long time in the hospital. I am now home again and in a good way to recover." Unfortunately his illness had seriously weakened him and he died of pneumonia on the 17th of last February.

In the article in the *Nation* I referred to Olrik's memoir of Moltke Moe as "an inspiring account of a life devoted to scholarship." It was more than that—it was a beautiful monument of a lifelong friendship. Some day when one whom Olrik has fired with a love for the study of the popular traditions of his country comes to write his life, doubtless there will be found in it the same unselfish devotion and consuming activity as in Moe's, and Olrik will take his place in the immortal band of those whose studies have been the expression of the most fervent patriotism.

T. F. CRANE

American Oriental Society

THE one hundred and twenty-ninth meeting of the American Oriental Society was held on Tuesday and Wednesday, April 10 and 11, in the rooms of the American Academy of Arts and Science, in Boston, which were kindly offered for the occasion. There was a large attendance and a considerable number of members came from the middle and more distant West to attend the annual sessions. As a result of the growing interest in Oriental studies in this country, a Western branch of the Society has been formed in Chicago, with the approval of the directors, in order that those living at too great a distance to attend the annual sessions, which are necessarily limited to cities on the Eastern seaboard, may also have an opportunity of coming together. The branch has been organized with a membership of almost fifty, and the members of the branch are also corporate members of the parent society. The suggestion to have another branch on the Pacific Coast has already been made and will no doubt ere long be taken up. Including those who joined the Western branch, over seventy new members were added to the list, bringing the total membership of the Society to a far higher figure than it has ever attained in the past.

Announcement was made that it is the intention of the editors to bring out five numbers of the *Journal* annually because of the increase in material submitted.

Through the Committee on Publication the attention of the Society was directed to three important and large publication projects—a Pali Dictionary, which is urgently needed by Indologists; a new Assyrian Dictionary, to include the additional material on cuneiform literature published during the past fifteen years; and a Grammar of the Tagalog Language, which has been prepared by Dr. F. R. Blake, of Johns Hopkins University. These three projects were formally endorsed by the Society. It is hoped that the Pali Dictionary may form part of the Harvard Oriental Series, edited by Professor Lanman, while the plans for the Assyrian Dictionary were placed in the hands of Dr. Muss-Arnolt and Prof. A. T. Clay, of Yale University, for further development. In connection with these projects, it was emphasized that because of the disturbed conditions in Europe, seriously affecting scientific production, the obligation rested upon scholars of this country to undertake larger publications for which we were in the habit of looking to European scholars.

The presidential address was delivered this year by Prof. George A. Barton, of Bryn Mawr College, who chose as his subject "The Ancient Babylonian Expressions of the Religious Spirit." It dealt in large lines with the main features of religious thought among Babylonians as expressed in incantations, prayers, early liturgies, and in creation myths. According to Professor Barton, the reason for the strong emphasis laid in the religious productions of Babylonia upon the penitential idea in contrast to Egypt, where penitential dirges, of which we have so many in Babylonian literature, were not found, was due to the rather gloomy views held in the Euphrates Valley regarding life after death, whereas in Egypt the great hope that sustained mankind was the belief in the resurrection of Osiris, in which in the course of time all Egyptians would have a share. While longings for a more cheerful immortality find expression in Babylonian literature, yet the hope held out at any time for more than a semi-conscious state of inactivity amid cheerless surroundings remained faint. The Babylonians appear to have been more interested in the beginnings of things than in the ultimate outcome of life, and so we find them developing a large number of creation myths, or epics, as Professor Barton prefers to call them, in which the origin of the gods, of the world and of man, and of institutions of settled or civilized life are set forth in the form of a drama in which the gods are the actors. Professor Barton was fortunate enough to discover a Sumerian tablet in the University of Pennsylvania Museum, containing a new version of the beginning of things which dealt more particularly with the creation of man and the beginnings of civilization. According to this text, the world, consisting of heaven and earth, is assumed to be in existence but without vegetation. The gods in consultation decide to make the land arable. Seeds are planted and grain in abundance is brought forth. The Sun God plans the creation of mankind, and the text goes on to say that "many men were brought forth." Food was provided for man, but neither clothing nor dwelling, and accordingly the text describes how man built reed-huts for himself. Fertilizing rains are sent to earth, and in due time cities and fortified dwellings arise to make the conditions of life more secure. As in the second chapter of Genesis, this old Sumerian text states that mankind received the sceptre of command over the earth.

Thirty-six papers were announced for the afternoon session of Tuesday and for the two sessions on Wednesday, but only about twenty of these were read in full. A large number were as usual of a very technical character, but some contained aspects of a more general interest.

Professor Breasted, of the University of Chicago, showed how from a study of very primitive "reed" floats still used by the natives on the Nile, consisting of strips of reed placed side by side, it was possible to obtain an interpretation for a very curious sign for boat in ancient Egyptian, which turns out to be a picture closely resembling the medium of navigation still followed at the present time.

Professor Hopkins, of Yale University, pointed out the large number of remarkable parallels in popular customs and in religious ideas between India and the North and South American Indians. The parallels extended to such minutiæ as the painting of a vermilion line from forehead to crown as a custom with perhaps some ritualistic im-

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plications, and to such customs as the sacrifice of a cock to the God of Health, and the custom of burning or expecting widows to be burned on the graves of their husbands. Professor Hopkins's main thought in calling attention to such numerous parallels was to impress a warning against assuming a direct influence exerted by Babylonia if we find in that country rites and customs occurring also in contemporary or later civilizations elsewhere.

Prof. A. J. Carnoy, of the University of Pennsylvania, read a most suggestive paper on the double aspects of storm gods in Iran, as, on the one hand, hostile forces and, on the other, as beneficial powers who by releasing the waters supposed to have been captured or held back become the givers of fertility.

Prof. Paul Haupt, of Johns Hopkins University, took as one of his subjects the famous expression "Son of Man," which has been so variously interpreted by generations of scholars. Professor Haupt deduced parallels and explained the phrase as connoting a "man of gentle birth," a "well-born freeman." He expressed the view on the basis of parallels in other languages that the word "man" in the phrase never acquired in Aramaic or Hebrew any other meaning than the generic one, applying to any individual. The Messianic interpretation is not inherent in the phrase.

Prof. Julius Morgenstern, of the Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati, proposed a new theory for the rite of circumcision which if correct would place the rite in an entirely different light from the one in which it has hitherto been regarded. Instead of being a ceremonial initiation, Dr. Morgenstern contended that it was originally a rite to mark the exit out of a period of danger by which the newborn child was surrounded. Circumcision would thus fall within the category of birth-rites, of which a large number are still in existence in Syria at the present time. These rites are precautions taken to make the child immune against the attack of demons supposed to be lurking near the helpless babe, and threatening the life both of the infant and of the weakened mother. Upon the termination of this period of danger various ceremonies, including blood sacrifices, were carried out, according to Dr. Morgenstern. Circumcision was one of the rites to mark the end of the danger period rather than the initiation into a clan or community.

A very important paper on the two recensions of the Slavonic Book of Enoch was presented by Professor Schmidt, of Cornell University, who showed that the shorter version made from a Greek translation of a Hebrew (or Aramaic) original was the older and that the longer one represents additions, made to embody the speculations of Alexandrian philosophy which are absent in the shorter recension. The book, therefore, in the course of growth became more of an apocalyptic production than it originally was.

Prof. C. R. Lanman, of Harvard University, reported on the progress made in the publication of the Harvard Oriental Series. This is one of the most noteworthy scholarly publications as yet undertaken in this country, and it is a tribute to the energy and unstinted devotion of Professor Lanman to the cause of Indian literature and civilization that, after a lapse of twenty-five years, he could point to a series of twenty-one volumes published, with eleven in press and several more in preparation. The series was made possible through a generous bequest of the late Henry C. Warren, himself an eminent authority on Buddhism. It covers the most important texts in the various divisions of Hindu literature, sacred collections of hymns, magic rites, fables, the drama, and philosophy. In appreciation of Professor Lanman's services to Oriental scholarship, the Society tendered the industrious editor a vote of congratulation.

A suggestion that aroused considerable interest was put forth in a paper by Prof. C. C. Torrey, of Yale University, proposing the establishment of an American Oriental Review, to contain critical reviews and short notices of all important publications in the Oriental field with special stress upon publications by American scholars which are not as largely noticed in European publications as they merit. The opinion was expressed by those who took part in the discussion that the publication of such a review would represent a valuable contribution on the part of American scholarship to Oriental science, but in order to carry out the project some generous friend of scientific labors would have to be found to subvention the work to the extent of about a thousand or fifteen hundred dollars a year.

At the dinner which united the members on the termination of the sessions, a number of informal addresses were made, several of which emphasized the hope that on the termination of this unhappy war American scholars would consider it their task to endeavor to bring about a resumption of international scientific relations by organizing international congresses to be held in this country.

A charming souvenir of the meetings was given to each member by Mr. Burrage, consisting of a miniature edition of the Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam, printed especially for this occasion on hand-made Japanese paper and dedicated to Professors Lanman, of Harvard University, and Jackson, of Columbia University.

Professor C. C. Torrey, of Yale University, was elected president for the ensuing year, and it was decided to hold the meetings in 1918 in New Haven. J.

The Study of Anthropology in America

IF the science of anthropology* is young in comparison with sciences of exact standing and long-established routine, like human anatomy or mathematics, yet, when we consider that, since the dawn of mankind, differences of stature and of other traits must have risen to some degree of consciousness as selective principles of propagation, Anthropology should be credited with the wisdom of old age. It is, nevertheless, true that the systematic scientific treatment of anthropological material can be traced backward only about a century. Since then the fields of investigation have been recognized and precisely circumscribed; new problems arise frequently enough and serve to widen the horizon, the biological experiment in all its applications has appeared upon the scene, and a great variety of methodical devices have been developed and employed. So far the most intensive endorsement of this science has been in Europe. Good work has also been done in Japan. America, and especially the United States, has shown very little interest so far. There are, in fact, only a few names in the past that could be associated with an-

*I shall use this term only in reference to man's *physical* status, while cultural manifestations will be referred to as "ethnology."

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thropology in its proper application in this country, and the present has added only a few others.*

The special study of anthropology has to be outlined in strict accordance with its immediate needs and interests. Forming the ultimate chapter in systematic zoölogy, the study of man must be carried on under principles employed by zoölogy and modified to the needs of anthropology proper. Like zoölogists, we shall have to describe carefully differences of form in order to trace varieties or species of the human kind, we shall have to carry on the comparison of varieties or species to the nearest related mammalian forms in order to differentiate between morphological superiority and inferiority of race. But we shall have to go one step further and express quantitatively differences of form and size for the simple reason that, although man as such cannot be understood except by his relations to the nearest related mammalian forms, his genus has for the time being ceased to be a transitional form. Differences of form and size will and do count for that reason, and quantitative treatment is the most decisive way of determining them. The following course of studies may be suggested: systematic zoölogy; comparative anatomy; human anatomy, and finally, systematic anthropology. The last mentioned will have to consider not only the descriptive treatment of racial peculiarities, but also, as stated, the investigation into organic differences from the point of view of comparative anatomy. Research work of this kind may well be classified under the caption of "Comparative Anthropology." It is understood, of course, that with the study of zoölogy, courses in general biology and in zoötomy, if possible, must go hand in hand. The study of palæontology, at least so far as the mammalia are concerned, with their decided bearing on the phyletic history of man's ancestry, is also indispensable. Human anatomy will have to be supplemented by descriptive and practical courses in embryology and histology, and without fail by the prescribed dissecting courses on the human corpse.

The close relation of anthropology to the biological sciences suggests the union of an anthropological institute with one of anatomy, a desideratum which in numerous instances we find carried out in the Old World. The university must then be regarded as the true fostering place of anthropology. Not only should the coming generation of anthropologists be trained there in accordance with established principles leading to the last phases of evolutionary knowledge, it should be also the place where anthropological research work may be carried on under the same principles. Museums must be considered akin to university institutions. The opportunities for good and profitable work could as a rule be excellent in museums, for the reason that it is the object of such institutions to collect material on a large scale.

The question then arises: What is being done in America in behalf of anthropological teaching and research work, and what opportunities are offered by institutions to encourage such work? The answer is extremely discouraging. Although there is scarcely a university that does not offer lecture courses in anthropology, only such subjects are treated as are of an ethnological character. I know of only a few instances in this country where an attempt is made at a systematic teaching of "anthropology." As a rule, anthropology has to be satisfied at present with the rôle of propagandism, comparable to the work of recruiting officers in times of national emergency. Authorities like Prof. Franz Boas, of Columbia University, have found it advisable to invite meetings of university men at which the unfortunate status of the subject was discussed and proposals offered for a practical adaptation of it to the general plan of academic teaching. The outlook seems to be rather gloomy, as the necessity was demonstrated of diluting the subject-matter to such a degree as to make it digestible for undergraduates. In this way it is intended to arouse interest in the subject, in order that in time a so-called standing for the science of anthropology may be built up and a full equipment furnished for those who desire to specialize in it. This would indicate a long and troublesome process, without any confident assurance of success.

It is logical under such circumstances to demand that our adepts shall be trained and equipped theoretically and practically for the scientific task that awaits them. And this can, of course, only be done if material compensation is offered in the way of positions in museums* and similar institutions, or possibilities are created for academic teaching. Consideration of the technical difficulties should not stand in the way of a progressive idea as to a full representation of "anthropology" at our universities even at the cost of a liberal private endowment. A fair start once made, it may be presumed that interest will grow rapidly, and that surprise will be shown on realizing that "anthropology" should have been neglected so long.

BRUNO OETTEKING

*See Hrdlicka, Ales: "Physical Anthropology in America." *American Anthropologist*, 1914 (U. S.), v. 16, pp. 508-554.

*It is gratifying to state that the newly completed "Museum of the American Indian—Heye Foundation" has made provisions for a Department of Physical Anthropology, and that the anthropological section of the Panama-California Exposition at San Diego, Cal., is to remain there permanently.

REVIEWS

Educational Theory

ONE would suspect from reading "Problems of Secondary Education" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.50 net) that there was at present nothing settled in the aims of the modern high school, and the suspicion gets further credence when one notes that the author is Prof. David Snedden. Yet this critical uncertainty is more to the point with serious students of education than are the hasty pronouncements of fledgeling experts, which make up the bulk of current discussion. Each of the twenty-five chapters of the book is addressed to some officer of educational administration, ranking from the president of a university to the principal of a small high school, or to a teacher of one of the various subjects which constitute the high-school curriculum. The fundamental problem, to the author's mind, is the critical determination of valid aims for the methods and processes which make up the school activities; an intelligent appreciation of this problem will, it seems, light the way for the solution of the specific problems growing out of the conditions under which the teaching of each subject must proceed. While the author regards as vague and lacking in definite content the proposed aims of "character," "culture," etc., he accepts the notion of the future social activity of the pupil as the determining criterion. This social activity is conceived in the vocational sense, or with reference to what the future social agent is to do. But it is gratifying to find in an educational work which commits itself to the vocational

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idea an emphasis of more or less vigor upon the rights of liberal culture.

THE discussion of two questions unfortunately much neglected in these days of blind worship of the practical forms the content of a little book by Prof. H. H. Horne, which bears the title "The Teacher as Artist" (Houghton Mifflin; 70 cents net). The first of these questions—stated as Is teaching a fine art?—is answered in the affirmative, with the qualification that teaching shall be that in which "the ideals of a liberal in distinction from a vocational training dominate, where things worth doing are done well for their own sake without regard to their practical usefulness," and further that teaching which is artistic should be regarded from the point of view of what is possible rather than actual. Analysis discloses two philosophies of art: the idealistic and the pragmatic, and a synthesis of results leads the author to combine the two philosophies in the proposition that "art is life in its ideality, felt and expressed, and life is, or should be, such art loved, cherished, and obeyed." The conditions under which teaching may become a fine art give rise to the second question, "The Shriving of an Inartistic Teacher." Searching of heart is the method here, and the purpose is to find for the teacher his "pedagogic sins for confessions," which are observed to "mount up to the deadly seven." These are pedantry, didacticism, "methodastry," by which the author means the tendency to fall back upon the everlasting arm of method, traditionalism, the omniscient air, gratuitous discipline, and academicism. In spite of such terminology, which, by the way, is not characteristic of the work as a whole, the teacher can find in this book some fine inspiration, and the lay-reader can learn how much and how little, in his private moods, the teacher can think of himself and why.

TO those who lament the lack of aim or of valid purpose in contemporary educational thought the book by Profs. E. T. Campagnac and K. Forbes, "Sadoleto on Education" (Oxford University Press; 7s. 6d. net) ought to come as a welcome relief. A translation of the "De Pueris Recte Instituendis," it represents religious and moral motives, accepting fully the form and spirit of classic culture—a true product of the Renaissance. Recognizing a basis in Plato, the work seeks to meet the demand for a philosophic purpose for the processes of instruction, and its results could profitably be taken into account by those who are just now asking what is the relation between vocational means and the ends of culture. Those aims are not stated as vague abstractions, but are worked out in view of what should constitute the social activity of the citizen, and through a consideration of the relative values of the various subject-matters. The aim may be stated as the efficient life, but a clear distinction is maintained between the process of building a rightly conducted life and the mere successful making of a living. To the complete accomplishment of this purpose three different lines of effort must be directed, after the preliminary stages of home training have been carried out. The development of liberal culture should begin with the study of language, the formal aspects of which should be mastered through drills in phonetics, declension, and conjugation, ending with the formulation of rules. Rhetoric, logic, history, and the wide reading of literature should issue in a large information and skill in making use of it. The second direction of effort should include mathematics and the sciences, with some emphasis on arithmetic because of its practical value. The third step should involve the study of poetry and music and, in conjunction with moral philosophy, should result in unifying all these motives in a synthesis of personality whose virtue is insight into truth. It is interesting to note that Sadoleto, while following Plato in the main, finds no place for the "spirited" element, which avoids the necessity of providing for military training. It would be encouraging if one could hope that this book might, as it certainly should if widely read, curb the zeal of the vocationalists.

The Classics

GREEK AND LATIN

IT is no easy matter to translate Æschylus, and it cannot be said that Miss Marion Clyde Weir has been particularly successful in her verse translation of the "Prometheus Bound" (Century; 65 cents). Miss Weir has rendered the trimeter into English blank verse, the anapæstic parts into rhymed anapæsts, the choruses into rhymed songs. She has tried to preserve the tone and the imagery of the original and has been reasonably successful in this aim, but, though there are many very good lines, the version as a whole lacks the distinction that ought to characterize any version of Æschylus. The metrical necessity, too, is responsible for undue compression at times, while in other places padding leads to feebleness. The blank verse is often very rough, and the anapæsts are sometimes iambs, again cretics or bacchics, as was to be expected. It is practically impossible to render Greek quantity by English quantity, and every new attempt merely emphasizes the futility of the effort. The general effect of this version is pleasant, but the strength of Æschylus has disappeared. Weclein for Wecklein in the preface is an obvious oversight.

SERVICEABLE as a handbook for Latin teachers is "Teaching High School Latin," by J. B. Game (University of Chicago Press; $1). This is divided into two almost equal parts, the former of which is devoted to a consideration of the value of classical studies and to arguments intended to strengthen the timid teacher in his faith. These are the usual ones, drawn from the testimony of men of distinction, who have not been slow to express their belief in the exceptional value of classical training, from the statements of professional students of language who stress the superiority of Latin over other languages for mental training, and from the large Latin element in the English language and literature. These arguments present nothing new, and will not have, as they have not had, any effect on critics of the Flexner type. Their moral effect is, however, strong on many who would prefer the testimony of the great to the clamor of the would-be great. The second part is devoted to a discussion of the work of the present four-year course, and contains many acute suggestions as to classroom devices and teaching procedure. The author is evidently a very acute and successful teacher and speaks from the fullest experience. He is, on the other hand, rather reactionary, clinging still to the current, now somewhat discredited, method of teaching, and holds strongly to the value of drill, drill, drill. That he has felt the pressure of the

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times somewhat is shown by his suggestions for broadening the interest of pupils by songs, novels, exhibitions, clubs, plays, etc., and by the valuable information as to books, slides, pictures, maps, etc. The book is timely and useful, but should have included some exposition of the Direct Method.

A COMMON way of stimulating the interest of students of Latin in our high schools in recent years has been the formation of classical clubs for the study of many matters pertaining to classical civilization and influence, which are not provided for in the regular course. The great difficulty has been the arrangement of programme. This is well met by Miss S. Paxson's "Handbook for Latin Clubs" (Heath; 60 cents), which contains programmes for thirty-six meetings, each one, however, having enough material for two meetings, so that weekly meetings for two years can be easily arranged. The topics are connected largely with Roman antiquities and manners, with a few on subjects more closely related to the authors read in class, and some on the relation of English to Latin and Greek. The bibliography to which the references are made is in itself a list of books valuable for the high-school library and for the wide-awake teacher. An appendix gives a number of modern poems on Latin themes, thus demonstrating most effectively the rôle played by the classics in modern literature, while a few Latin songs, with the music, add much to the value of a most admirable little book, which forms an excellent complement to Professor Sabin's "Relation of Latin to Practical Life."

FOR the use of freshmen H. McN. Poteat has prepared an edition of "Selected Letters of Cicero" (Heath; $1). The editor has in mind the needs of Southern students especially, as they suffer greatly from inadequate high-school preparation. But the book will be just as serviceable for the other parts of the country, since the inadequacy of the preparation of freshman students is a universal complaint. The aim of the book conditions the commentary, which is simple, direct, not over-much marred with translation, and contains a great deal of elementary syntactical explanation. One cannot help wondering what the pupils have been doing in the high school, to render so elementary a commentary necessary. The chief fault of this edition is its utter lack of imagination. Doubtless much should be left to the teacher, but surely in Cicero's letters, if anywhere, lies the material for interpretation of his character, and this is the first duty of the teacher of Cicero. Neither by reference nor by statement do we find any indication in this book that Cicero was an actor of first rank in perhaps the greatest crisis in the world's history up to the present.

Modern Languages

ENGLISH

WILLIAM HENRY HUDSON'S "An Outline History of English Literature" (G. Bell & Sons; 2s. 6d. net) is precisely what its title indicates. In four and twenty brief chapters it covers the familiar journey from "Beowulf" to Stevenson. Each chapter is set off with a convenient chronological table. The whole matter is accommodated to the meanest understanding.

"GRUNDISS"-MAKING used to be the exclusive province of the Germans. In the field of Middle English even they, however, have not yet systematized the material with the same thoroughness which they have expended on Anglo-Saxon. Prof. John Edwin Wells has therefore acquired much merit for himself by compiling, and the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences by publishing, "A Manual of Writings in Middle English, 1050–1400" (Yale University Press; $5 net). This is avowedly a handbook. Its value is to be assessed not for its fresh contributions to the subject, which it makes no pretence of offering, but on its effective organization of extensive and somewhat intractable material. What it sets out to do it achieves most admirably: the adept will welcome the convenient assemblage of widely scattered references, and the beginner in the field will be encouraged in his enterprise by the attractively written summaries and criticisms and the meaty bibliographies. The subject is broken up in the traditional manner and distributed under types—romances, tales, chronicles, lyrics, and the like—with separate treatment for the great names as they begin to appear: Rolle, Wycliffe, the "Gawain poet," Gower, and Chaucer. Under each heading the author describes the MSS., gives a summary of contents, and follows with an account of the literary quality and filiation of the work. Full bibliographical information is set forth in carefully analytic notes. The ends of easy reference and cross reference—the chief function of the book—are served by a good index. When the subject permits, however, the text is quite as readable as a professedly literary history. The author's summaries of the history of scholarly opinion on this topic or that are eminently fair and clear. Fortunately he does not hold himself bound to stop at 1400 when his subject, as is not infrequently the case, carries him into the fifteenth century. For a work of nearly a thousand pages, containing a mass of difficult detail, there is a most commendable freedom from minor inaccuracies. The book is of indispensable utility to all students of Middle English of whatever stage of proficiency.

THE thirteenth-century poem of "Iacob and Iosep" has been edited with characteristic thoroughness by Prof. Arthur S. Napier (Oxford University Press; 2s. 6d. net). The poem, surviving in a single manuscript and written in a southwestern dialect, is a spirited paraphrase, in a mixture of alexandrines and septenaries, of the story of Joseph. It shows characteristic mediæval variations from the Biblical narrative and is clearly a minstrel rather than a homiletic performance. Students of the earlier literature will gladly find room for it on their shelves.

SEVERAL excellent volumes have been added to the Lake English Classics (Scott, Foresman; 40 cents). Prof. Walter Morris Hart edits half a hundred representative "English Popular Ballads," which he introduces by means of a substantial essay on the ballad question, a field in which Professor Hart's own studies permit him to speak with authority. He does not, however, argue matters; he is content with expounding the "communal composition" theory. In the same series Connington's translation of the Æneid has been issued under the editorial supervision of Profs. Francis G. Allinson and Anne C. E. Allinson, also with an excellent introduction. The editors have wisely supplied

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the lines which the translator omitted. George Eliot's "Mill on the Floss," with an introduction by C. H. Ward, and Southey's "Life of Nelson," edited by Dr. Allan F. Westcott, are quite up to the standard of this useful series.

AN attractive edition of George Peele's "The Old Wives' Tale" has been prepared by Frank W. Cady (Richard G. Badger; 60 cents). The book grows out of a performance of the play at Middlebury College in 1911, and should prove of the greatest value to any one undertaking a similar performance. Modern stage directions, clearly indicated as such, have been freely introduced, and there are suggestions for the music of the incidental songs.

FRANK W. C. HERSEY has put together a very pretty volume of selections, by way of a tercentenary offering, under the title "Sir Walter Raleigh: 'The Shepherd of the Ocean'" (Macmillan; 50 cents). It is a graceful tribute to a man to whose splendid dream it is owing that in the New World to-day there are English-speaking people hastening to the task of helping the Old World to save itself. The selections are almost equally divided between Raleigh's verse, in which he was always a gentleman, and his prose, in which he was not seldom a poet. In portions of the latter the editor has, wisely for the flavor's sake, kept the old spelling. To include extracts from Raleigh's trial was a happy stroke.

STUDENTS of Elizabethan drama will welcome the appearance in English dress of the fourth volume of Creizenach's "Geschichte des neueren Dramas" under the title of "The English Drama in the Age of Shakespeare" (Lippincott; $4.50 net). The English title accurately describes the work, which is complete in itself. The subject is presented not as a succession of authors, nor is it grouped under dramatic types; after an introductory chapter on the drama before 1587, the author discusses, with a wealth of illustration, the position of the dramatist, his moral and social ideas, the materials out of which the plays were made, matters of arrangement and construction, character, style, and staging. Such a method, while it is not always the most convenient for purposes of reference, furnishes in abundance suggestive groupings and fresh points of view and leaves the reader with a sense of having grappled with the subject as a whole. The work of translation has been carefully performed by Miss Cécile Hugon, under the supervision of the late Alfred Schuster and of R. B. McKerrow. Dr. Creizenach has revised the text with special reference to material that has appeared since the publication of the German original in 1909.

THREE volumes in the excellent "Arden Shakespeare" (Heath; 30 cents each), a series prepared under the general editorship of Prof. C. H. Herford chiefly by English scholars, have been brought out anew, each under the supervision of an American editor, Prof. Morris W. Croll revising H. L. Withers's "Merchant of Venice," Miss Edith Rickert performing a like service for E. K. Chambers's "A Midsummer Night's Dream," and Prof. E. H. Wright for J. C. Smith's "As You Like It." For fulness of illustrative material in compact and inexpensive form this series can be highly recommended for school and college use. The appendix on metre may perhaps be accepted as a necessary evil, but, for our part, it only confirms our belief that any edition of Shakespeare is a good edition if it does not discuss his versification. A very sightly edition of "Much Ado About Nothing," with a readable introduction by F. S. Boas (Oxford University Press; 1s. 6d.), inaugurates a series of Select Plays of Shakespeare, under the general editorial supervision of J. C. Smith. The critical apparatus is excellent, and if the series attains to any considerable length, it should not fall behind its many rivals in the struggle for a place on the library shelf or, better still, in the reader's pocket.

AMONG the Barnes English Texts appears an abridgment of "Boswell's Life of Samuel Johnson" (A. S. Barnes Co.; 28 cents), edited by Stella Stewart Center. The apparatus is cut down to a minimum, but is quite sufficient, even for schoolroom purposes. The selections are skilfully chosen with an eye to continuous reading, and in some three hundred pages contrive to give a fair idea of the whole work.

THE small and handy pocket editions of the Oxford University Press series of World Classics on thin paper now include "English Prose," the selections beginning with Mallory and ending with Stevenson; "English Critical Essays of the 19th Century," with selections that begin with the Romantic Movement and the essays of Wordsworth and Coleridge and go down to Emerson and Lowell, and which are concerned with literature rather than with individual writers, and the famous "Confessions of a Thug" by Meadows Taylor. This last was first published in 1837, and had a great vogue as a "thriller" in Victorian circulating libraries, though it is almost unknown on this side of the Atlantic, where our daily press makes frequent use of a cognomen of unfamiliar and picturesque origin. Thuggee was a regular form of dacoity flourishing in India from early times, and is first mentioned in a fourteenth-century Moslem history. Highway robbery, always accompanied with murder by strangling with a noose, was invested with vague religious rites, and the fraternity, curiously enough, initiated both rich and poor, Mussulmans and Hindus, though its quasi-religious cult centring upon Kālī, goddess of destruction, was naturally of Hindu flavor. So daring and powerful did the clan of Thugs become that the British were finally roused to a ruthless crusade. Chiefly aided by the confessions of renegade members of the secret cult, they finally stamped it out in the years preceding the Mutiny of 1857. Col. Taylor's classic fiction was based upon the sensational facts gathered by Sir William Sleeman, who commanded the operations against this strange and desperate fraternity.

THE Riverside Popular Edition of Bryant's "Iliad" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.50 net) is furnished with Flaxman's designs. Somehow, in looking over them, we cannot escape a feeling that Flaxman is not doing quite such good work as he used to do. It is a sound work in a convenient form.

HAWTHORNE'S "House of the Seven Gables," edited by John B. Opdyke (Holt; 52 cents net), is one of the most recent additions to "English Readings for Schools."

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RICHLY endowed with apparatus, maps and pictures, questions and reading lists, is "English Literature," by Prof. Thomas E. Rankin and Prof. Wilford M. Aikin (Macmillan; $1.20). Besides the usual material, it has a chapter on The Present Day and another on The Chief Types of Literature.

WILLIAM ODLING'S "The Technic of Versification" (Oxford: Parker & Co.; 4s. 6d. net) is the work of a distinguished physicist who has interested himself in the subject as an amateur, partly because he has discovered that the philologists are in such disagreement concerning it; one who knows less about it, he hopes, may fall into fewer difficulties. Such an approach does indeed result in a certain refreshing *naïveté;* but one can scarcely be grateful for the writer's seeming ignorance of the literature of the subject, or his indifference to the conventional use of technical terms. Dr. Odling's system is the old-fashioned syllabic one: all our metrical feet are made up of twos and threes—iambs, trochees, dactyls, anapæsts, or amphibrachs. He will not allow for spondees or pyrrhics, because there must be just one accent to a foot; he knows nothing of secondary or compromised accents; nothing of quadruple measures, pæonic or otherwise, such as are fairly common in modern English verse. He either does not know or does not care to know any of the attempts to interpret our rhythms in terms of music, from Lanier onward, nor the writings in which Mr. T. S. Omond has sought to mediate between the musical and the syllabic theories; hence we have nothing on the difficult matter of the time-values of omitted syllables and other pauses. The terminology is often interesting, but certainly as often questionable: what most of us call feminine endings in iambic verse Dr. Odling describes as final amphibrachs; a final catalectic foot in trochaic verse he calls a cæsura. Despite his fondness for final amphibrachs, in the line "And like this unsubstantial pageant faded" he puts the amphibrach in the *first* foot, and calls all the other feet trochaic! With these eccentricities there go a number of sound observations, and many useful specimens collected from a fairly wide range (recent and contemporary poets excepted); but it is difficult to see for what readers even these can be widely useful, since the discussion is too brief for scholarly purposes, and too eccentric for the needs of beginners. One of Dr. Odling's interesting experiments is to write the entire manual in phrases instead of sentences, so that it reads like the jotted notes for some oral discourse. This results in a rather pleasing avoidance of dogmatism in manner; it suggests, indeed, attractive possibilities for expositors who are tempted to hesitate between the predicates "this is so" and "this may be so"; but it sometimes leaves the reader in some real doubt which verb to supply.

FIVE years ago the subject of "English for Engineers" or "Engineering English" or "English and Engineering," as it is styled by Prof. Frank Aydelotte in a volume just published by the McGraw-Hill Co., was decidedly a new one; to-day it is so familiar that even he who runs through the pages of our technical journals must pause to read. Then, more than one teacher of English as well as of engineering asked the question, What is English for engineers? and would barely stay for an answer; now, the only question is, How shall we teach this English for engineers? To this question Professor Aydelotte gives a definite answer: "Stimulate the thought of the student by directing his attention to problems of his own profession and of his own education and to the illumination of them which he can find in literature." Hence this book, which comprises chapters on Writing and Thinking, The Engineering Profession, Aims of Engineering Education, Pure Science and Applied, Science and Literature, and Literature and Life. On the face of it, this programme seems pretty general; the subject matter, doctrinal and abstract. Using such material, students would have abundant opportunity to theorize, to reflect, to make decisions or formulate judgments, and to express their ideas accordingly. And so far its value is obvious. Students in engineering, as well as in other fields of study, will not suffer from a little extra turn of the thinking screw. What one may possibly feel a bit uncertain about, however, is the feasibility of using a book of this sort, excellent as the material and the aim are, as a textbook in an undergraduate course in English. Advanced students in engineering would use to greater advantage material more closely related to their specific interests. The average freshman in our engineering schools, on the other hand, should concern himself primarily with the concrete facts of human experience—with the life about him, with his own experience and with that of his fellows, with everyday conditions as well as with literature and science. The freshman should for the most part base his writing on subjects of such general human interest. If this book is designed for use in a course in freshman composition, it has too limited a scope; if it is to be used for the specific purpose indicated above, as a part of a broader programme, it is an admirable volume.

AS valuable a single book for student use in the pursuit of American literature as has ever appeared is "Representative American Plays," edited with introduction and notes by Arthur Hobson Quinn (Century; $2.75). It is not merely a convenient assembling of scattered material which the average student would not otherwise read; it is a finely representative collection of plays reprinted from rare editions and even from manuscript, which could not be read at all except upon a prohibitive outlay of time and money. Material for reprints of stories, essays, and poems is relatively easy of access, because they were originally circulated through the press; but Mr. Quinn has in this volume rescued for the reader what was originally intended for the theatre audience. The material is ample and typical, the text is clear, the introductory matter is compact with discriminating information, and the whole is capped with a bibliography which is generous without being a wanton display of industry minus judgment. The book contains twenty-five plays written between 1767 and 1911. Of these, three were written and produced before 1880; eleven from 1824 to 1865; only two from the end of the Civil War to 1896, and nine in the final period. This first group, from which the more easily procurable "Ponteach" is omitted, is provincially unoriginal: "The Prince of Parthia," which is reminiscent of the pseudo-Orientalisms of Dryden and Mrs. Aphra Behn, "The Contrast" (lately revived in Chicago), an eighteenth-century comedy of manners after the fashion of Goldsmith and Sheridan, and "André," a blank-verse tragedy of American history. Taken together they have a distinct historical value as a record of what the public wanted in those days.

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THE next period is extremely interesting from this same point of view. Up to 1865 New York was not a centre of any matured culture. Bryant, Irving, Halleck, and Greeley were self-educated men, and so were almost all of their New York following. The New England group of this time had the impress of Harvard and Bowdoin and the universities of the old world, and the cultured coterie of Charleston were more and more of them going abroad for study and travel. As between two individuals it is, of course, quite apparent that one may contrive to profit not at all from formal education, and the other may achieve sweetness and light by unassisted might and main. But as between two communities no such miracle is possible. The town in which there is no commanding group who have lent themselves to the leisurely contemplation of the things that are more excellent has missed a vital something. There is an almost pathetic irony in the way in which the literature of mid-century New York made an unconscious acknowledgment of just this state of affairs. Gotham turned to literature as to a haven of refuge. The Knickerbockers escaped into it from life. The growing city offered them few legends, they shrank from realistic portrayal, they did not even care, but for rare exceptions, to satirize it. So they resorted to sentimentalism, and to distant time and climes. "The Ballad of Babie Bell," "Ximen, or the Battle of the Sierra Morena," "The Blameless Prince," "Königsmark, and Other Poems," and "The Book of the East" were the natural output. And the plays with which they regaled themselves, most of them not even composed by native New Yorkers, were of the same vintage. "Pocahontas," "The Broker of Bogota," "Tortesa the Usurer," "Francesca da Rimini," "Leonora, or the World's Own," and "Charles the Second" seem to have been their prevailing diet. Yet from this period, aside from "Rip Van Winkle," the only productions that modern audiences would go to see as plays are "Fashion" and "The Octoroon," both of which were built out of contemporary American life. The thirty years after the war were almost fruitless, and then began the contemporary tide in which Mr. Quinn has selected various types: a new Civil War play, a little blossom of romance, an international play, a social comedy, a drama of revolt, a drama of political life, and a domestic drama. There is not much in this long array to stir the pride of an honest American in the contributions of his countrymen to the literature of the stage; but there is a great deal of food for interest and for study in so far as the theatre furnishes an index to the drift of national thought. For the student of American literature Mr. Quinn has done an invaluable service.

THE brief and "snappy" book on manuscript salesmanship—"The Contemporary Short Story"—written by Harry T. Baker and published by Heath ($1.25) is almost but not quite completely frank. If the author had only refrained from occasional references to art and artistry his little volume would have been wholly justifiable. For there is no reason in the world why short-story writers should not ply their trade for money, just as editors edit for it, and circulation managers advertise and plot and contrive for it. Only, when they do so, they should stop talking about art. And the familiar appeal to Shakespeare in this connection will be impertinent until some writers' guide to magazines of ready revenue shall demonstrate how, when, and where Shakespeare degraded or neglected his art in order to make his plays salable. Mr. Baker's contribution to the bibliography of the short story is readable and engaging. In the chapters on Originality, Common Faults, How Magazines Differ, and A Magazine Office from the Inside, he tells a good deal about the prejudices and the workings of the editorial mind, and by implication a good deal about the quality of the (shall we say the *literary?*) market. Inside information of this sort is always a little alluring. It is like going behind the scenes, or riding in a locomotive. For the inexperienced there is something of a thrill in it, but a danger, that he does not suspect, of being blinded by "the spot" or coming down from the cab with a cinder in his eye. We believe that there will be a similar danger for the novice in reading Mr. Baker's frequent allusions to art in this commercial book. He is likely to acquire a squint which will make him unable to distinguish between doing the truest thing he knows how to do and in the most scrupulous way, and avoiding the excellences that editors do not regard as popular. The people who ought to read this book, and can enjoy it without fear, are of two classes: the small minority who never have aspired to write a short story and never will aspire, and the writers who have achieved their unassailable standards, but have no intelligent idea whether there is any market for their works, and, if there is, where to turn for it.

INTERESTING as a curiosity is "The Best Short Stories of 1916 and the Year Book of the American Short Story," edited by Edward J. O'Brien (Small, Maynard; $1.50 net). A supercritic without any friends or any sort of bias might well be staggered at the thought of attempting such an editorial task. Yet the editor of this volume read 2,500 stories in 1916, received material assistance from 87 men and women, and blithely issues a challenge to the literary world at large to confuse the issues for 1917 by sending in stories which have qualities of distinction, and yet are not printed in periodicals falling under his regular notice. In spite of the most honest intention, it is impossible to take this sort of book seriously. The reprinting of twenty stories, the summarizing of fifty more, and the sober printing of a roll of honor—Baedekerized up to three stars—presupposes the existence of fixed canons of literary judgment beyond either the will or the power of humankind to achieve. Yet on one ground it is well for such books to be published. A hundred years from now they will have a distinct historical value, both as informative about the short story of to-day and as throwing light on what now passes as criticism.

FRENCH

AS good a beginners' book of the kind as has appeared for some time is Koren and Chapman's "French Reader" (Holt; 80 cents). The material, which is well selected throughout, is grouped under six headings, as follows: history, fables and legends, memoirs, newspaper extracts, short stories, poetry. The historical extracts, filling some fifty of the total of 173 pages of text, are chosen—excepting the brief introductory "note explicative" of the editors—from good elementary school handbooks. Among the other sections, that containing short, vivid passages from various Paris newspapers of the opening weeks of the present war cannot fail to interest students. Between the text and the vocabulary there is an extensive list of irregular verbs.

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THIRTY-FOUR exercises based on passages chosen with good judgment from standard French periodicals, the subjects being partly literary, partly general in character, are contained in Hill and Smith's "Advanced French Composition" (Holt; $1). French text and English exercise are printed opposite one another; notes and questions are at the bottom of the page, and there are French-English and English-French vocabularies. A useful and well-planned book.

THREE volumes have recently been added to the noteworthy Oxford French Series (60 cents each) by American scholars. Professor Langley, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has given a complete edition of Beaumarchais's "Le Mariage de Figaro"; Professor Hamilton, of the Ohio State University, has edited Scribe and Legouvé's "Adrienne Lecouvreur," and Professor Young, of Beloit College, offers a new edition of George Sand's "Le Marquis de Villemer." All three volumes are provided with appropriate introductions and notes, those to the "Mariage de Figaro" being especially well done.

IN Heath's Modern Language Series, Halévy's "L'Abbé Constantin," with notes and vocabulary by Professor Logie, has been reissued with the addition of a set of sixteen direct-method exercises and a number of illustrations from the Calmann-Lévy edition of the work.

GERMAN

SO arranged as to be of use to the student of general phonetics, a field in which American students, hitherto, save for a few striking exceptions, notably indifferent, are plainly feeling a quickened interest, is Prof. E. Prokosch's "Sounds and History of the German Language" (Holt; $1.75). The book is opened with a clear description of the organs of speech and proceeds to an analysis of the various sounds of the language. Throughout the comparison with American speech is kept before the student's mind; the description is remarkably clear, and fortified by much sensible and really useful counsel. The second and longer portion of the book deals with the development of the German language from primitive times. The treatment is such as to commend it to students in any branch of Germanic philology. Writing an elementary textbook, the author is commendably careful not to obtrude his own theories when they have not attained recognition.

PROGRESS made by the direct method in the favor of teachers is further exemplified by the new editions of standard texts provided with *Fragen, grammatische Übungen,* and the other paraphernalia of reform. From the publishing house of D. C. Heath & Co. there have appeared recently reissues of Clary's edition of "Höher als die Kirche" (35 cents), Bernhardt's "Immensee" (35 cents), and Lewis's "Germelshausen" (35 cents). In each instance the direct-method exercises are by another hand; all seem to fulfil their purpose with reasonable satisfactoriness.

A GERMAN grammar which nowadays enters into competition with the field must present some distinctive features in order to attract attention. Whitney and Stroebe's "Brief Course in German" (Holt; $1) is designed either for beginners of not too tender age or for pupils who have had one year's work with a simpler book and who require a review. The direct method is the basis of instruction, but provision has been made for those teachers who desire some translation from English into German. The chief features which call for special notice are the handling of the verb, which is made the basis of all work in the language, and the limited and carefully selected vocabulary of about 700 words, presented always in connected passages. The exercises impress one as uncommonly idiomatic; they have already been used in pamphlet form with success, according to the authors, in Vassar and Mt. Holyoke Colleges.

SOMEWHAT unconventional in appearance and containing certain innovations of method is a grammar written by Dr. Alfred I. Roehm, of the Wisconsin State Normal School, under the title of "Practical Beginning German" (Menasha, Wis.: Geo. Banta Publishing Co.). Though the formal method still appears here in combination with the natural method, an attempt has been made to change the specifically grammatical part from enigmatic paradigms to rational principles. The author rightly complains that in most beginning books the structural difficulties of German are introduced in too rapid succession, to the consequent bewilderment of the pupil. He tries to avoid this pitfall by deferring much material of subsidiary importance until review time and by stressing the resemblances to English. In this way, he maintains, the student reacts to the method with accuracy and with conversational speed. The vocabulary is limited to about 800 words. The postponement of the use of German type until the fourteenth lesson seems a doubtful device. There are many misprints, some of which are corrected on an inserted leaf.

BREVITY and practicability is the aim of Elementary German Syntax," by Prof. B. Q. Morgan, of the University of Wisconsin (Holt; 80 cents). The theoretical part is condensed into sixty-odd pages, and there are a few syntactical exercises designed to aid the student in the mastery of the principles laid down. Much lexicographical matter, which modern dictionaries have rendered superfluous, is omitted. The statements are in general admirably lucid, but in two instances (pp. 36 and 37) clearness has been sacrificed to brevity.

REPRINTED from the appendix to the author's "Modern German," "A Handy German Grammar," by Prof. C. N. Gould, of the University of Chicago, is published by Scott, Foresman (50 cents). It contains paradigms and a simple statement of the elementary principles of syntax. It is designed as an auxiliary handbook for cases where the beginning book does not present forms in orderly fashion, or it may be used as a reference book when the reading of a connected text is taken up.

SIMILAR in purpose is a book entitled "Elements of German Grammar for Review," by M. H. Haertel and G. C. Cast, of the University of Wisconsin (Heath; 50 cents). In order to focus the attention of the student on the essentials, all unnecessary details have been omitted, and matter of secondary importance has been put in small type or in the notes. One is a little surprised to find the introductory chapter devoted to definitions of grammatical

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terms, but the teacher of German has frequently to consume much time in imparting the first elements of English grammar. In fortunate circumstances the chapter may be skipped.

THE current fashion of composing reading books on the subject of an imaginary trip through Germany has received a further extension in Prof. Philip S. Allen's "An den Ufern des Rheins" (Holt; $1), which describes, in 170 pages, the river and adjacent territory from Lake Constance to the Netherlands. The author writes in sprightly fashion with an eye both to entertaining information and to practical idioms. There are many interspersed poems and literally dozens of illustrations. Editorial aid is confined to the vocabulary. The value of such a text will not be self-evident to those who have an old-fashioned prejudice in favor of books by real Germans of known literary standing.

PART I of "Progressive Lessons in German," by Rudolph W. Huebsch and Raymond F. Smith, has recently appeared in a revised edition (Heath; 70 cents). It is specially prepared for pupils in secondary schools. The authors, while holding that experience has demonstrated their ground-plan to be pedagogically sound, have deviated in several respects from the first edition, notably in the increased emphasis on verbs and by the insertion of material to encourage the discussion of grammar in German. Sentences for translation from English into German, which have been added, are placed in a separate portion of the book, so that the teacher may omit them unobtrusively if he desires.

A CURIOUS booklet on the "Gender and Declension of German Nouns" has been compiled by Caroline T. Stewart, of the University of Missouri (Heath; 30 cents). It is intended for first-year pupils and aims at associating in their minds gender and inflection with the things themselves and not with their word-symbols. Pictures representing things are arranged according to the declensions of the German words, the genders being grouped separately. After each category blank pages are left on which the pupil may either make drawings or paste pictures of further objects.

READERS intended for pupils who have had at least one semester's work in German are still in demand. "Deutsches Lesebuch," by Peter Scherer, Director of Modern Languages in the Indianapolis Public Schools (Holt; 60 cents), is designed to meet such a requirement. The editor announces his aim as two-fold: to make the pupil acquainted with the inner life of the German people, and to prepare him through the direct method for work of more literary merit. To achieve the former purpose, he has selected his material from mythology, sagas, fables, fairy-tales, and poems, for, as he says, it is in their mythology and folk-lore that "we see the German people with their merits and their shortcomings." The statement is doubtless true, but the further assertion that such material has been hitherto neglected in the classroom is obviously not correct. The numerous questions and exercises based on the text give evidence of careful preparation.

PROF. E. PROKOSCH became one of the protagonists of the direct method on the publication of his "Introduction to German" eight years ago. Feeling that the compromises which seemed to him necessary at that time are no longer required, he has endeavored in his latest book, "Deutscher Lehrgang: erstes Jahr" (Holt; $1), to be entirely consistent in the application of his favorite method. The formal grammar is relegated to a synopsis at the back of the book; in the lessons themselves the approach is directly through the German. The grammatical material is boiled down to the facts that are most essential for the intelligent reading of easy German prose. Points omitted are to be taken up in a second book. One has the feeling that the successful employment of the book will depend largely on the alertness and vigor of the teacher and on the further circumstance that the pupils shall be neither too old nor too numerous. A complete phonetic transcription of the first six *Abschnitte* has been published separately under the title of "First German Lessons in Phonetic Spelling" (Holt; 25 cents). A somewhat simplified form of the system of the International Phonetic Association is used. Professor Prokosch asserts that a privately printed edition has been tried out in the University of Texas for more than two years with gratifying results. He urges it most strongly as an auxiliary to his other book.

THE latest addition to the interesting series of monographs on German Literature and Culture, edited by Dr. Julius Goebel, is a study of "Tannhäuser and the Mountain of Venus," by Prof. Philip S. Barto, of the Carnegie Institute of Technology (Oxford University Press; $1.25). It is a rather closely knit piece of work which must be read in its entirety if its logic is to be appreciated. The author advocates an entirely new conception of the story. Hitherto discussion has centred upon the questions whether the Venusberg myth and the Tannhäuser legend are independent or connected motifs and whether they are of Italian or German origin. Professor Barto takes a wider view of the question. Finding no necessary link between the two parts of the story as we now have it, he seeks an explanation further and finds his solution in the idea of a beautiful Teutonic paradise and of a divine personage who issued from it, later to return thither. In this way the myths or legends of the Grail, of the Swan Knight, of the Venus Mountain, and of Tannhäuser all become variants of the same theme. The idea of the grail-realm can be shown to have rapidly deteriorated into that of a sensual hollow-mountain paradise, and thus to have coalesced with the Venusberg. So, too, Lohengrin became Tannhäuser, sharing his fate in departing never to be seen or heard of again. In conclusion, the author finds etymological evidence for identifying the names of Tannhäuser and his predecessor Daniel with Wodan, thereby bringing the group into relationship with the myth of the Furious Host (*die wilde Jagd*). Professor Barto's stimulating suggestions, for which he attributes the credit in large part to his teacher, Dr. Goebel, are presented with sufficient plausibility to require serious examination. Quotations from the source-poems are given in English translation in the body of the text, the originals being confined to the notes. A valuable appendix brings together the various versions of the folk-song of Tannhäuser. The book will undoubtedly provoke much discussion.

PROF. JOHN L. KIND'S edition of Grillparzer's "Sappho" (Oxford University Press; 75 cents) follows sub-

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stantially the lines of his edition of the same author's "Des Meeres und der Liebe Wellen," issued a year ago. The introduction and notes are in English, while résumés, questions, and topics for review have been added in German for the benefit of those who desire to employ the direct method. The edition is particularly intended to bridge over the gap between special vocabularies and the larger dictionaries. Hence the notes are unusually complete and detailed, and are much more helpful than those of the only other American edition of the play. The typography is up to the high standard of excellence which marks this whole series of texts. There are three full-page illustrations.

PROF. W. D. TOY'S serviceable edition of Freytag's "Die Journalisten" (Heath; 45 cents) has been modernized in appearance and revised thoroughly in introduction, notes, and vocabulary, which on examination appear to be adequate for all ordinary purposes of instruction.

A NEW edition of Oscar Burkhard's "German Poems for Memorizing" (Holt; 40 cents net) increases the number of poems included to seventy and the number of musical settings to thirteen. Among the latter are some of the most familiar German airs.

THE most elaborate edition of Goethe's "Hermann und Dorothea" yet offered the American educational world is that by Dr. F. W. C. Lieder, of Harvard (Oxford University Press; $1). At first sight the text appears to be over-edited, but a closer examination reveals many useful features, some of which are distinctive. The editor makes the point in his preface that, although "Hermann und Dorothea" is the work of Goethe's usually selected for reading in preparatoy schools, it is by no means an easy text and as a result is frequently read by students who are not adequately prepared. The notes have, therefore, been made copious and the vocabulary complete. But the editor, having also in mind the use of the text in college classes, has added extra reading matter in the way of appendices. One of these contains August Wilhelm Schlegel's penetrating criticism of the poem, and another Wilhelm von Humboldt's brief essay on the distinction between idyll and epic. An interesting feature of the work is still another appendix containing sixty familiar quotations from the poem. Special commendation is due the section of the introduction which deals with metrics, where the confusion resulting from the employment of classical terminology to denote modern measures is admirably cleared up. The proof-reading has apparently been careful; the only error noticed is the misspelling of Mörike's name (Introduction, p. xxxix). It is the most generally satisfactory edition of "Hermann und Dorothea" now on the market.

GUERBER'S "Märchen und Erzählungen," which has been extensively used for twenty years as a reader for beginners, appears now in a new edition with fresh plates and various illustrations (Heath; 65 cents). A set of the inevitable direct-method exercises has been added by Prof. W. R. Meyers, of the University of Minnesota.

THE monograph on "Gottfried Keller as a Democratic Idealist," by Edward F. Hauch (Columbia University Press; $1 net), is welcome if for no other reason than that it reintroduces to the American public a writer of whom it is still deplorably ignorant, in spite of the efforts of Mrs. Edith Wharton and others. The author finds that, while all three of the main tendencies in German literature of the nineteenth century—romantic, propagandist, and realistic—are represented in Keller's works, the chief significance of his contribution is "his uncompromisingly democratic attitude of mind in all things, coupled with an indestructible idealism in his outlook on life." His earlier political radicalism and anti-clericalism became tempered in later life to such an extent that his last work, "Martin Salander," which is a plea for moderation and dignified sobriety in all things, almost seems to suggest disillusion. Yet Keller was indestructibly optimistic, and preserved to the end a somewhat mystic faith that the people would work out successfully their own destiny. A good illustration of his unwillingness to force democratic theories to their remoter conclusions is his conservative attitude towards women. In religion he was willing to apply his democratic theories more rigorously and make each man his own priest and his own judge. The author might with profit have dwelt more on Keller's *Diesseitigkeit*, which rather strikingly resembles Goethe's. A chapter on his educational ideals shows the prominent pedagogic vein which he had in common with most other Swiss writers.

IT has long been a matter of regret that no play of Ibsen's has been available in an annotated edition for classroom work in German. Ibsen's acknowledged debt to Hebbel, his long sojourn in Germany, his immediate and potent influence on the development of the later German drama, are all valid reasons why he should be treated as an integral part of German literature. This is the more readily possible both because his problems of conduct are inseparably bound up with general Continental social conditions and because his plays (or the prose ones at least) have been so successfully translated into German as to leave no trace of foreign flavor. Doubtless all of these reasons actuated Dr. J. L. Boysen, of the University of Texas, in preparing an edition of "Ein Volksfeind" (Oxford University Press; 90 cents), which he describes as "the sunniest and most spontaneous of Ibsen's works, despite the belligerent mood of its creator." The introduction is lengthy and contains a fairly full discussion of all the plays, naturally with special emphasis on the social dramas. The most valuable part of his introduction is the section devoted to Ibsen and Germany, where much interesting information is compactly but clearly vouchsafed. In the discussion of the character of the hero, the quality of naïveté might have been emphasized more strongly, as it removes from him any odium of wilfulness or professional martyrdom. The editor's notes are intended to elucidate the underlying ideas and the dramatic development as well as to explain textual difficulties. A special section of ten pages on the use of modal adverbs in the play gives some very practical help in idiomatic translation.

SPANISH

SUPPLE'S "Spanish Reader of South American History" (Macmillan; $1) caters to the growing interest felt in the affairs of our southern neighbors. There are included nine selections from representative Spanish-Ameri-

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can historians, ranging in time from a biography of Balboa by García Icazbalcete to Eduardo Posada's speech on the Panama Canal. The latter, delivered before the consummation of Roosevelt's famous *coup d'état*, hardly represents the present attitude of Colombians towards us. But it is well for us to know, if justice is to be done that country, that the American point of view once had its eloquent advocates. Americans know too little about Bolívar, the South American Washington. The selections dealing with his career are especially interesting. The present well-edited textbook is a notable contribution.

LITTLE that is new in pedagogical method is offered by "A Practical Spanish Grammar," by Fuentes and François (Macmillan; $1). Perhaps for that very reason it will be welcomed the more, because its use will not be restricted to the advocates of any one system. The editors are conservative rather than radical. There is a return to the older method of completing one subject before taking up a new one. A grammar so constructed gains greatly as a book of reference, whatever may be the disadvantages to the beginner occasioned by the avoidance of the "piecemeal" method. Another excellent feature is the absence of disconnected English sentences in the Spanish composition exercises. Every teacher knows how impossible it is to teach the proper use of pronouns and past tenses when insufficient context is provided. The treatise on pronunciation is practical and approximate rather than scientific. That this is the character of the whole book is sufficiently indicated by the title.

"LECTURAS FÁCILES," by Wilkins and Luria (Silver, Burdett; $1 net), recognizes that Spanish is not the easy language it is commonly thought to be by those unacquainted with it. It is just as necessary that the student's first reading should be carefully graded as it is in the case of any other language. The editors' object has been to provide the beginner with carefully graded, easy selections, but without sacrificing literary quality. The book is divided into two sections, one of selections from European writers, the other culled from South American sources. There are conversation exercises based upon the texts.

WHITTEM and Andrade's "Spanish Commercial Correspondence" (Heath; $1.25 net) is a thorough and excellent manual of business correspondence in Spanish. It is a very useful tool for American students and business men engaged in the commercial rivalry which is now being waged on the South American continent, and which may be expected to develop in intensity after the war. The authors appreciate the fact that, in dealing with Latin-Americans, courtesy is no less important than clarity and accuracy. All the polite formulæ are given and instructions provided as to the greater or lesser degree of effusiveness to be employed on each occasion.

PROF J. D. M. FORD'S edition of Moratín's "El Sí de las Niñas" (Ginn; 50 cents) has been on the market eighteen years. The present new edition differs from its predecessors only in the matter of a few minor rectifications. The fact that so few changes have been necessary testifies sufficiently to the excellence of the original print.

SOLANO'S "Classroom Spanish" (Heath; 15 cents) is a fourteen-page leaflet providing the necessary phrases for those teachers who desire to plunge into the spoken language at the start. It will be useful to teachers of the natural and direct methods.

PRIMER'S edition of Gil y Zárate's romantic drama, "Guzmán el Bueno," was first edited for class use in 1901. The text is now modernized and improved in a new edition (Ginn; 75 cents). The story of the "Spanish Brutus," who acquiesced in his son's death rather than betray a trust, has always fired the blood of Spaniards. Of all the modern writers, Gil y Zárate has given best expression to this heroic legend. Primer's edition of the play has found favor in American classrooms and will continue to be widely used.

NELSON'S "Spanish American Reader" (Heath; $1.25) aims to make Americans more familiar with conditions in South America. Unfortunately the editor has had insufficient experience in the needs of American students. Many of the selections are uninteresting and ill-chosen. So many unusual and dialectical words are introduced, words unnecessary for the student to know, that an otherwise excellent book may find a less ready acceptance than should have been the case.

OF "American Literature in Spain," which serves as the title of a new book by Dr. John De Lancey Ferguson (Columbia University Press), there is undoubtedly as little of significance to be said as could be said of the literary relations of any two important countries. Dr. Ferguson disclaims any intention to speak with finality, but it is safe to generalize after the collection of trivialities he has adduced. Regarding his work as a dissertation for the doctorate, one is disposed to be severe upon this contribution to scholarship: it deals chiefly with the exuberant and bombastic opinions of men whose words are without value; it is devoid of philosophical conclusions; further, we do not recall reading a dissertation whose body was so compactly made up of quotation. The evidence of these quotations shows three facts: that American literature has exerted practically no influence in Spain; that a number of American authors have been read in hack-translations, frequently via the French; and that a few individual critics of repute, like Menéndez y Pelayo for Irving and José Bethencourt (Angel Guerra) for Poe and Whitman, have seriously attempted to interpret the spirit of certain American authors. An intelligent nation more constitutionally incapable of enjoying American literature could not be found in Europe. One might as profitably study the history of "Spanish Literature in America" in the introductions and notes of our Spanish classics for school use as spend time in seeking to prove the corresponding negative thesis by examining the *feuilletons* of Spanish newspapers or the ignorant encomiums of hack translators. This dissertation, however, possesses an interest, perhaps unintended. One reads of Puerta del Infierno as the Spanish for Henlopen (*i. e.*, Hell open) of Longfelleu, of Current Brijant, of Witman, and other vagaries. Poe is said by one Peninsular critic to have died "a victim of that horrible malady known as spontaneous combustion." There are enough of these unconscious *gaffes* to hold the reader's attention for two hundred pages, and thus to reach

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some solid comment upon Whitman. The bibliography fills fifty pages, and includes all sorts of American authors honored with translation, from Cooper and Poe (the most popular) to Mr. Carnegie, Miss Helen Keller, and President Jordan!

History

EUROPEAN

GREGORY OF TOURS has been wisely given a place in the "Records of Civilization," edited by Professor Shotwell (Columbia University Press). Many have read in Guizot or Emerton the famous description of the atrocities and frightfulness of Clovis which close with the pious Bishop's naïve observation: "Every day God kept laying his enemies low before him and enlarging his kingdom because he walked with right heart before Him and did what was pleasing in His eyes." But only the few who are completely at home in Latin have hitherto been able to enjoy that wonderful picture of sixth-century society, with its commingling of Roman and German *Kultur*, which may be found here and there in the good Bishop's monkish chronicle. His "History of the Franks," well translated, abridged, and annotated by Ernest Brehaut, may now be appreciated by those who know no Latin.

ON the genealogical side of English history two writers have traced their families with care and certainty to about the year 1100 A. D. Mr. A. R. Ingpen, in "An Ancient Family" (Longmans), precedes his study of the genealogy of his ancestors by a superfluous and commonplace sketch of English history which is of no particular value; but his genealogical work, with full extracts from the family records, is well done. Of much greater worth is the handsome volume of "Le Strange Records, 1100-1300," by Hamon Le Strange (Longmans; $7). This Anjevin family, which settled in Norfolk soon after the Norman Conquest, was highly regarded by Henry II and his successors, and acquired considerable lands in Shropshire and Cheshire. It took a leading part in the Border Wars in Wales under Edward I, held the office of Sheriff in several counties, and was finally merged with that famous family of Talbots, Earls of Shrewsbury, whom Shakespeare has immortalized in "Henry VI." The scholarly author is able to dissipate many of the unfounded legends about his family which have passed into English history, for he has based his work on the solid foundation of charters and other contemporary documents, many of which he reproduces in facsimile.

IN spite of his activities in connection with the war, Professor Tout found time in 1915 to deliver a couple of lectures at the John Rylands Library in Manchester which have been reprinted from the Bulletin of the Library (Longmans; 40 cents each). In "A Mediæval Burglary" he describes humorously the amazing manner in which certain persons in the year 1303 stole the King's treasure from the vaults in Westminster Abbey. The whole blame at the time was at once assumed by one Richard Pudlicott, who told a boastful lie to the effect, "Alone I did it." His word has been generally accepted by historians. But some of the stolen silver goblets were found under the bed of the Keeper of the Palace; and a precious ring was given by the Sacristan of the Abbey to a woman of loose life "so that she should become his friend." These scandalous facts and many others which Professor Tout has turned up make it pretty clear that the robbery was undoubtedly participated in by a number of the loose-living monks who kept nightly revels in the Abbey while the King was away in the North. In the lecture on "The English Civil Service in the Fourteenth Century" Professor Tout gives an attractive picture of the wide knowledge, corporate feeling, kindly indulgence, and sufficient devotion to the task in hand which was typical of mediæval household officials like Geoffrey Chaucer.

"ONCE to grasp the Mediterranean point of view is to be dominated by its fascination," wrote Julian S. Corbett a dozen years ago in the preface to his admirable work on "England in the Mediterranean, 1603-1713" (two vols.; Longmans; $5). He went on to give the first satisfactory account of that important bit of English naval and political history by which England first established her sea-power within the Pillars of Hercules, occupied for a while Tangier, and finally fixed her unshakable hold on the Rock of Gibraltar. The Great War, which has again centred men's minds on England's sea-power and her position in the Mediterranean, has called forth a second edition of Professor Corbett's authoritative story of those small beginnings in the seventeenth century. It is reprinted in smaller format, but otherwise there is no change from the first edition.

IN the fifth volume of the valuable "Oxford Studies in Social and Legal History," edited by Professor Vinogradoff (Oxford University Press; $4.15), are two incisive monographs dealing with English agrarian development. Both authors take for examination small areas and brief periods, and come to the safe and not unexpected conclusion that agrarian conditions varied so widely in different parts of England that we must be very guarded in indulging in the sweeping generalizations which have come so glibly from the pens of the chroniclers and textbook writers. Miss Elizabeth Levett, writing on "The Black Death," from an examination of the manors of the Bishop of Winchester, finds that on these manors at any rate the Great Pestilence did not have the cataclysmic economic effects which historians have usually attributed to the years 1348-9. On the Winchester estates the Black Death did not bring anarchy or revolution; nor was there the usually alleged rapid commutation of labor services into money payments in the years immediately following. This commutation of labor services did not begin until well after 1360, when it was probably due much more to the grandiose building projects of the ambitious Bishop, William of Wykeham, than to the scarcity of labor resulting from the Black Death. These conclusions for Winchester are quite at variance with those which Thorold Rogers, Cunningham, T. W. Page, and others have asserted for England in general. Mr. Reginald Lennard's monograph, "Rural Northamptonshire under the Commonwealth," is based on a careful examination of Parliamentary surveys. These were made by the impecunious Cromwellian Government with a view to a general confiscation and sale of royalist landed property, such as took place in France during the Revolution. The incidental information which he has collected in regard to the progress of agriculture seems to confirm the view of recent writers that enclosures did not come

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suddenly under the early Tudors as an economic revolution, but were part of a slow and fairly steady movement which went on for four hundred years.

THE abridged edition of "Carlyle's Frederick the Great," by A. M. D. Hughes (Oxford University Press; 3s.), is better in conception than in execution. In these days of such general aversion to anything Prussian, it is well that we should not forget the real greatness of the Hohenzollerns of former days. Carlyle's Friedrich, as every one knows who has been so fortunate as to read it, is the portrait of one genius by another. But in the process of abridgment the element of genius seems to have evaporated from both. The King's campaigns, which are made lucid in the original edition by the excellent maps, are here unintelligible because the diagrams are so inadequate.

NOTABLE as a college textbook is "A Political and Social History of Modern Europe," by Carlton J. H. Hayes (Macmillan; $4.25). In two solid volumes of some 600 or 700 pages each, the author places before the earnest college student a clearly arranged and accurate mass of important facts in the development of Europe from the age of the great discoveries at the close of the Renaissance to the outbreak of the present war. The central theme is the rise and evolution of the powerful middle class in society —the bourgeoisie—which has done more than all the other social classes put together to create the life and thought of the modern world. There are accordingly such excellent chapters as those on the Commercial Revolution of the Sixteenth Century, Society in the Eighteenth Century, The Industrial Revolution, and Social Factors, 1870-1914. But in the actual narrative there is not so much emphasis on economic development, nor such a departure from traditional treatment, as one would expect from the novel division of the subject indicated in the table of contents. It is an admirable book to "grind" for knowledge. It gives succinctly the necessary basis of fact for a thorough and intelligent understanding of modern politics and of the great underlying causes of the present war. But it is lacking in the charm which comes from a portrayal of personality in history; and there are few passages which lead the student to throw back the head in reflective thought. The maps and genealogical tables are adequate and excellent. The lists of books for further reading at the close of each chapter are remarkably full, judiciously selected, and provided with brief and very helpful critical comments.

PROF. C. D. HAZEN'S "Europe Since 1815" has proved so satisfactory as a college textbook, as well as one of the most readable histories of the nineteenth century, that one has high expectations of his latest volume, "Modern European History" (Holt; $1.75). These expectations are not disappointed. There is the same lucidity of statement, attractive style, and good judgment in the selection of material. In addition there are a considerable number of illustrations and many more maps than in his earlier book. Its chief limitation is that it treats mainly of political rather than of social and economic development. Beginning with a vigorously drawn picture of the Old Régime in Europe, which led to the French Revolution and enabled Napoleon to enforce a new order upon so much of old feudal Europe, it closes with the Balkan wars of 1912-13 and the irrepressible conflicting interests which plunged Europe into the present gigantic conflict. The central portion of the volume follows closely the lines of the author's earlier book, but in a briefer and more elementary fashion, being compressed into almost exactly half as many words. But it does not give the impression of being "boiled down"; it has been largely rewritten and contains many apt phrases not to be found in "Europe since 1815." As a textbook it will probably find its place in good high schools and in freshman courses in college rather than with more mature college classes. The first two hundred and fifty pages have been published separately in a library edition, without the illustrations, under the title, "The French Revolution and Napoleon" (Holt; $2.50).

THE Great War has fixed men's minds as never before on the large problems of the rivalry of nations, the conflict of economic interests, the benefits and evils of war, and the various proposals for preventing the resort to force as a means of settling international disputes. On all these questions there has been a vast deal of loose thinking and exaggerated writing. One of the clearest, sanest, and most succinct analyses of these problems, by the judicial mind of an American historian, is Edward Krehbiel's "Nationalism, War, and Society" (Macmillan; $1.50). By adopting the syllabus form of statement, the author is able to compress the main established facts and propositions into much briefer compass than is possible in the ordinary narrative form. He has added well-selected references for further reading. Norman Angell contributes a vigorous introductory chapter, and the whole syllabus is a logical argument in favor of the settlement of international disputes by pacific means; but it is relatively free from the emotional exaggeration and humanitarian narrowness of mind which characterize so many of the pacifist outpourings.

IN "Nationality and Modern History" (Macmillan; $1.25) Prof. J. Holland Rose cannot be said to have kept up to the high level of objectivity which he set for himself in his admirable biographies of Napoleon and the Younger Pitt. In this volume he attempts to trace the growth of the national idea, and says, in charming language, some excellent things about Dante, Mazzini, Fichte, Hegel, and others who have contributed to make the spirit of nationality a political force in history. But he is not always clear and logical in his analysis of this force during the last fifty years. Nor is he happy in his attempt to distinguish between "Nationality, in an ideal sense, as an aspiration towards united national existence" and "Nationalism as the inherent and aggressive instinct which has of late developed in Germany and the Balkan states."

IN "English Biography" Prof. Waldo H. Dunn, of Wooster College, undertakes to trace the genesis and evolution of the writing of English biography from Bede and Adamnan to John Morley and Sidney Lee. It is no mere chronicle of names, but rather a thoughtful and interesting analysis of the true function of biography as a literary art. Consequently he discusses the problems which face one who would write a "Life" that shall really live. By generous quotation he shows how biographers in successive centuries have conceived their task; and by the exercise of good judgment he determines how far they have succeeded in realizing their conceptions. It is a book which

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has much matter for reflection both for the critic and for the composer of biography, fiction, and history (Dutton; $1.50 net).

AMERICAN

IN their "Introduction to American History" (Longmans; 72 cents) Prof. J. A. Woodburn and T. F. Moran have followed the recommendations of the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association in regard to the work of the sixth grade. The Committee suggests that the pupils should study about "those features of ancient and mediæval life . . . which explain either important elements of our civilization or which show how the movement for discovery and colonization originated"; and it suggests that a "few great incidents or typical characters of the ancient and mediæval world" may be added. While the authors of the book before us have kept these suggestions constantly in mind, they seem to have laid more stress on the description of great incidents than on the presentation of facts and institutions that explain American life or history. Their book, therefore, chiefly describes the striking phases of European history, some explanatory of the advance of civilization and others notable for their prominence in the narrative of the past. While such subjects as ancient culture are treated, little effort is made to show in what way they bear on present-day culture. This does not mean that the authors have not taken a wise course. Perhaps it is better to have pupils of the sixth grade learn about the striking incidents than try to grasp casual relations in so large a field; but if we are to confine ourselves to the chief incidents, why call the narrative an introduction to American history? For the most part it might be an introduction to the history of any of the cultured nations. The manner of presentation is good, and the point of view is generally admirable. The pictures, however, emphasize the myths of ancient and mediæval history. Here we see Canute on the seashore, Nero fiddling while Rome burns, Constantine gazing at the Cross, Demosthenes declaiming on a windy shore, Diogenes reclining in an immense tub, and Horatius defending a diminutive bridge. Stories like these are introduced with words of doubt, but the pictures overcome the self-restraint in the text; and we may well ask what they have to do with the "Introduction to American History."

DESIGNED for use in preparatory and high schools, the most noticeable feature of Prof. Emerson David Fite's "History of the United States" (Holt; $1.60) is the small attention given to military history. Deducting the space devoted to civil affairs, maps, and pictures, the chapter on The War of Independence shrinks to fifteen pages and the chapter on The Civil War shrinks to sixteen. As for the war against Spain, its campaigns on sea and land get forty-eight lines, four less than the second fugitive slave act receives. It is easy to sympathize with the pacifists in their horror of war as war; but they go too far when they ask us to kick into the corner the history of our military achievement. Prof. Fite gives twice as much space to "the Caroline affair" as to Jackson's New Orleans campaign. He cannot think that this wrangling on the New York frontier is twice as important as the defence of the Mississippi Valley against British conquest. Moreover, no incident in our history is more likely to preserve confidence that our people can be rallied to the task of self-defence than the battle of New Orleans. Every American child should know under what conditions it was fought. It is especially necessary for the children of foreign-born fathers and mothers to learn that American armies have fought well in battle.

THE space taken from military history is assigned to economic considerations, and these are generally well presented. The one chapter on economic and social conditions in the colonies is well done, though brief. On the period from 1789 to 1865 are several sections of chapters that relate to the same subjects, while these also receive most of the space allowed to the period after 1865. In fact, in the recent period political events are swallowed up by social and industrial information. Political reconstruction has a short and unimpressive chapter, and after that the students who wish to know what the trend of parties has been must pick their way through a mass of information on labor, transportation, and various forms of social legislation. The old habit of making the story of our national history conform to the Presidential Administrations as a sort of skeleton for holding together other kinds of historical information is discarded; and the classification that is introduced seems to the reviewer to be too complex for the use that will be made of the volume. On the sectional side of the book, Professor Fite shows a desire to be impartial, but he cannot disguise his slight interest in the other side of the case. While giving the Southern side of slavery, he does it perfunctorily. It is singular that a book which is so plainly a social history should have so little about religious development. The Mormons and Second Day Adventists are mentioned, but almost nothing is said about the Baptists, Methodists, and Catholics, and their services in the development of American society.

EXCEPTION must be taken to some statements. For example, nothing is said to show that Grant's failure to get a third nomination was owing in large degree to the fact that he was supported by corrupt politicians (p. 430); and no mention is made of the "Mulligan Letters," although Blaine's quarrel with Conkling and the Burchard incident are quite specifically described (pp. 430, 435). We are not told why the Panama revolution was said to have been supported by President Roosevelt (p. 490); and it would seem that some explanation should accompany the assertion that President Roosevelt has tried to get Colombia to accept compensation for the loss of Panama (p. 491). Blaine was not a Senator when he made the celebrated speech against Jefferson Davis in 1876 (p. 419). Virginia did not settle the Albemarle section as an outpost against Spain (p. 72); no military post was established in Albemarle. It is not well to speak of the election of John Quincy Adams to the House of Representatives as the result of the efforts of the abolitionists, since he obtained his election in 1830, before the abolitionists were strong enough to influence an election (p. 290). It seems strange to find the organization of the Liberty party, 1840, treated before the election of 1836 (p. 291). Much praise should be awarded to the frank way in which the pensions situation has been stated, but it would have been well to say that the Confederate pensions by the States are not on the same basis as the Federal pensions (p. 526). Although matters like these somewhat mar the judicial aspect of

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the book, it may be safely said that for information in regard to social and industrial history and for a discussion of some of the modern tendencies in American Government the book is exceptional. In respect to recent politics it is progressive in spirit.

Government

A REVISED edition of F. D. Boynton's "School Civics" (Ginn: $1.12 net) includes brief discussions of the more important changes which have taken place in American governmental institutions during recent years, and the author has in many instances profited by suggestions which have come to him from schools using the book. In scope and substance the volume has been distinctly improved; it now ranks among the very best books available for high-school use in the field of civil government. It is to be regretted, however, that the author did not exercise greater discrimination in revising his bibliography. The lists retain much that is obsolete and omit many books which unquestionably should have been included.

THE most noteworthy feature of "The Form and Functions of American Government," by Thomas H. Reed (World Book Co.; $1.50), is the attention which it devotes to the actual workings of administration. The chapters on The Process of Lawmaking, on The Regulation of Corporations, and on Government and Labor may be singled out as illustrating the clearness with which these complicated topics can be described in relatively few pages when an author sets his hand earnestly to the task of doing it. Teachers of civics who desire to make their instruction practical in the best sense of the word should not overlook this volume, for besides having the notable merit of definiteness Professor Reed's volume is inclusive, well-proportioned, accurate, and readable.

Economics

PROF. RICHARD T. ELY'S "Outlines of Economics," first published in 1893, appeared in a revised and enlarged edition in 1908, and has now again been subjected to a thoroughgoing revision. This third edition (Macmillan; $2.10) bears on its title-page the names, as joint authors, of the revisers—Thomas S. Adams, Max O. Lorenz, and Allyn A. Young—as well as of Professor Ely. It is a striking reminder of the rapidity with which events have moved in this country in the field of labor legislation that the one new chapter that has been inserted in the present edition of the book is that relating to this subject. Any one who got his foundations in political economy out of the textbooks of the last generation cannot fail to be struck with the enormous range of subjects covered in such a book as this, as compared with what was then included; and there is always some danger that in the mind of the student this wealth of material, important as it is, may yet carry with it the drawback of more or less submerging the central truths. In Professor Ely's book, the distribution of emphasis, as well as of space, is such as to reduce this danger; but of course it remains for the teacher to effect its complete removal. It may be noted that in the appendix on the "history of economic thought," Professor Ely—who was one of the first to introduce into this country the ideas of the German historical school of political economy—after referring to the limitations of the Ricardian economics, says in conclusion that "despite these limitations, the largest contributions to economic science came from the English classical school."

IN "Poverty and its Vicious Circles," by Jamieson B. Hurry (Philadelphia: Blakiston; $2 net), a scholarly English gentleman and physician has brought together a great number of illustrations of the truth of Solomon's pregnant saying, "The destruction of the poor is their poverty"; not, however, with a view to merely impressing the sinisterness of this fact upon the reader, but for the purpose of indicating the hopefulness of the various ways now being so vigorously advanced of breaking the vicious circles. Numerous as these are, one is surprised to see how familiar they have become to the intelligent public; so that the chief service rendered by a little book of this kind, even to the "average reader," is that of a sharp reminder rather than that of a source of new information. Whether one looks at the graphic presentation of the case by means of actual drawn circles, with arrows pointing round them, or whether one reads the more detailed account in the text, one finds that the main points have been persistently hammered into the general consciousness in the course of the past three or four decades of agitation for social betterment. Thus we are all equally familiar with the vicious circle of poverty—defective housing—phthisis—incapacity for work—poverty, which is the first given on page 3, and with that last given on page 109, namely, poverty—indiscriminate almsgiving—mendicancy—poverty. But the book abounds in brief comments which, while unpretending, are useful and often pithy; and it contains many concise indications of historical and social facts that are less familiar than the general theses. It is interesting to note the quotation (p. 139) from the article "Armenwesen" in Conrad's "Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften":

> England may rightly claim to be the model country as regards its legal care of the poor. True, up to the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century her methods exemplified in a typical form all the evils which opponents of state interference prophesied. But the various improvements introduced since 1834 have most effectually combated those evils.

Dr. Henry, while saying that "England is generally regarded as having led the way" in legislative coping with the problem of poverty, adds that "other nations are now equally zealous in legislative measures, and in some respects are in advance of this country," the reference being especially to Germany.

A USEFUL addition to the Debaters' Handbook series (White Plains: H. W. Wilson Co.; $1.25 a volume) is "Selected Articles on Minimum Wage," compiled by Mary Katharine Reely. The introduction, a brief sketch of the history of the minimum-wage movement, shows the compiler to be strongly in sympathy with it and to be capable of sharp criticism as regards its various phases; but the selection of articles is marked by impartiality as well as by good judgment. Among the authors arrayed on the affirmative side are authorities like Sidney Webb and Professor Seager as well as writers of more journalistic character; and likewise on the negative we find Profs. J. B. Clark, Taussig, and Fetter. Altogether there are about two-score articles—

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some complete, some extracts from reports or the like. The 200 pages, including a bibliography and a good index, will be interesting and helpful not only to prospective debaters, but to the general reader desiring to get a fair impression of the considerations that have been brought to bear on this subject by representative thinkers and writers.

USUALLY the practice in economic textbooks has been to combine the treatment of practical problems with economic theory, but Prof. Frank A. Fetter in his "Economics" has adopted a different plan. The first volume, which appeared in 1915, was devoted entirely to theory, and the second volume, which has now been published, with the sub-title "Modern Economic Problems" (Century; $1.75), deals with various practical questions. Whether this departure from the older arrangement is a pedagogical improvement is an open question, but the general reader who has little taste for the subtleties of economic theory will welcome the change. Professor Fetter's discussion is clear and well-informed, and his conclusions are temperate and suggestive.

IT is not uncommon for scientists of great reputation to turn from their own special fields to write of philosophical subjects. A more unusual figure is the eminent engineer addressing himself to fundamental economic problems. In the case of Mr. Charles P. Steinmetz, the interest in such problems is not difficult to trace. In the preface of his little book on "America and the New Epoch" (Harper; $1 net) he says: "As Socialist, I took an active part in the ten years' political war of the Social Democracy against Bismarck, succeeded in escaping to Switzerland when the Government tried to arrest me, and, after continuing my studies there, came to America." The book in method and manner is essentially such as might be expected from a diligent student of Marx. The economic interpretation of history is pressed to its uttermost limits. For example, the Civil War was fought with a view to "reserving the markets of the South and the West to the industrial New England States. The abolishment of slavery was merely an incident of this economic issue." The main theme of the book is that after the present war the United States will be unable to meet the competition of coöperatively organized nations. Germany already has such an organization, and the war will bring it to England. Co-operative organization, as Mr. Steinmetz uses the term, includes (1) the establishment of workingmen's insurance against sickness, unemployment, and old age, and (2) the relinquishment of competition as the leading principle in economic organization. Along with much that is bizarre, the book contains illuminating passages. The author is at his worst when he deals in historical generalizations, but when he touches more concrete matters he is not infrequently acute and penetrating.

MR. A. W. MADSDEN'S "The State as Manufacturer and Trader" (Unwin; 7s. 6d.) is the first systematic attempt to appraise the Government tobacco monopolies which exist in several European countries and in Japan. On every count, the author finds against the monopolies. Not only do the monopolies yield less revenue for a given rate of taxation levied on the consumer, but the consumer is more limited in his choice of goods. Labor conditions in the state factories are poor, and the retailer is exploited. On the chief question discussed—the relative revenue from specific taxes or a state monopoly—the conclusions reached can hardly be regarded as final, for comparisons among the countries are difficult to make on account of differences in national habits and in the purchasing power of consumers. Mr. Madsden has, however, established a strong presumption in favor of specific taxes.

THERE are few parts of economic theory which have been so successfully cultivated as the theories of foreign exchange, of international trade, and of railway rates. It is in these fields that the economist working by deduction has been able to reach conclusions which have been abundantly verified by experience. Dr. H. G. Brown's "Principles of Commerce" (Macmillan; $1.75) consists of three parts, each of which is devoted to an exposition of one of these theories. The book, therefore, is interesting as an exposition of economic theories, but it is more than a mere exposition. The author has cleared up the theory at not a few places and has blazed new trails. It must be admitted, however, that, with all its virtues, the volume is not likely to prove attractive to the general reader. The reasoning is too compact, and there is too little illustrative material.

"RETAIL SELLING," a little book by James W. Fisk (Harper; $1), covers in an attractive manner the practice of the best retail stores. The book will be useful primarily to sales managers and heads of departments, but the salesman himself will derive practical benefit from many of the chapters—especially those dealing with the sales force—as well as indirect profit from a better understanding of the selling organization as a whole.

THE ideal which apparently animates the writers of textbooks on "industrial management" and "industrial administration" is to produce a book which shall serve as a *vade mecum* for young men who are planning to be managers of factories. If inclusiveness is to be regarded as the test of merit, Prof. Edward D. Jones may fairly claim to have outstripped his competitors. In his "Administration of Industrial Enterprises" (Longmans; $2) he has added to the usual content of such textbooks a considerable section dealing with "the process of mercantile distribution." The necessary result of this enlargement of scope is, however, that the treatment of all the topics is very brief. Indeed, in some cases, the discussion is so slight as to make it a question whether much benefit can be derived by the student.

DESIGNED to serve as collateral reading for college classes, "Readings in the Economic History of the United States," by Professors E. L. Bogart and C. M. Thompson (Longmans; $2.80), contains material drawn chiefly from contemporary sources. For the period since the Civil War, extracts from official publications bulk large. A more liberal selection from the more human documents of the later period, such as biographies of statesmen and labor leaders, would have given to the student something of the same vividness which in the earlier periods is obtained by the selections from the comments of travellers. In the main, the selections are very brief, rarely being more than four or five pages in length, and in many cases much less. In a book of 900 pages the compilers have, therefore,

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been able to touch upon almost every subject which is ordinarily discussed in courses on the economic history of the United States.

FEW parts of the economic system are so little known as that relating to retail distribution. The reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission, frequent Congressional investigations, and, not least, the increasingly elaborate reports of the companies have given to the public a clear insight into the business of the railways. Hardly less complete is our knowledge of the fundamental manufacturing industries of the country. In the field of retail trade, on the other hand, the publicity which necessarily attends upon the corporate form of organization is almost entirely lacking, since the greater part of retail business is conducted by individuals and partnerships. Public inquiry has only recently been attracted to the question of the costs of retailing, and such investigations as have been made have concerned themselves exclusively with the retailing of food products. It is, therefore, of the scantiest materials that Mr. Paul H. Nystrom has put together his volume on "The Economics of Retailing" (The Ronald Press; $2). That he has made of such material an interesting and instructive book is proof both of the great importance of the problems considered and of the author's diligence. The characteristic feature of the book is that it deals with retail trade from the social point of view and attempts to estimate the relative efficiency of the various methods of conducting retail business. The book is designed primarily, therefore, not for the merchant or salesman, but for the student of economics.

IN "South America: Study Suggestions" (Heath; 60 cents) Mr. Harry Erwin Bard has compiled a bibliography on Latin America and prepared a helpful syllabus on related subjects. He has done little more. One instinctively seeks for precisely the information he has withheld. For example, Mr. Bard dismisses Charles Lyon Chandler's important little book, "Inter-American Acquaintances," with the brief comment that it "contains original and interesting information relative to the beginnings of Pan-Americanism." He fails even to hint that Mr. Chandler has thrown important new light on the origin and meaning of the Monroe Doctrine. By thus condensing too far his comments on various books, Mr. Bard has stopped just short of rendering really valuable service to students of Latin America. Still, his suggestions will be of definite assistance to those who have both the will and the leisure to investigate further.

COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY

FIRST in a series of four small volumes, designed mainly as textbooks for use in secondary schools, is "A Regional Geography of the Americas," by Leonard Brooks (University of London Press; 3s.). The second and third volumes are by the same author, and deal, respectively, with "Asia and Australasia" and "Europe and Africa." When used in succession, these three books are believed to afford a reasonably comprehensive survey of the geography of the world, thus preparing the reader for an understanding of the fourth volume, entitled "Geography and World Power," written by the general editor of the series, Mr. James Fairgrieve, lecturer on the methodology of geography in the University of London. The fourth volume is designed to show, among other things, the influence of geographical conditions upon world history. As indicated by the title, Book I follows a regional treatment. There is a happy combination of physical, historical, human, and economic geography discussed in thirty-one chapters of interesting reading. The first seven chapters are general in character and serve as an appropriate introduction to the later discussion of the geographical regions of the Americas. Thus, there are short but interesting chapters dealing with the discovery of the North American continent, its main physical features and how they came into existence, the great ice age, the distribution of temperature and rainfall, plant and animal life, etc. The volume is liberally illustrated, and at the close of the chapters there are to be found appropriate exercises for the student to answer, which are designed to encourage further study and original thinking on his part.

AN interesting volume entitled "Textiles" (Appleton's Commercial Education Series; $1.50) has been prepared in the extension division of the University of Wisconsin by Dr. Paul H. Nystrom, author of the well-known work on "Retail Selling and Store Management." It contains, in compact form, a consideration of the sources of supply, methods of manufacture, marketing conditions, directions for protecting from mildew and pests, the various tests of quality, and other important economic aspects of the textile fibres which are of industrial and commercial importance in the modern business world. The volume is by no means a technical treatise; it is adapted to a wide range of readers, including, among others, those engaged in either the wholesale or retail selling of textiles, and students and teachers in educational institutions where the subject of textiles occupies a place in the curriculum. It is to be regretted that an index has been omitted, yet there are several well-chosen illustrations which add greatly to the ease of understanding various parts of the text.

ANOTHER attempt to present the leading facts of industry and commerce in relation to their geographical environment is to be found in "Elementary Economic Geography," by Charles Redway Dryer (American Book Company; 36 cents). The book is divided into two parts, dealing, respectively, with human economies and their natural foundations and the economic geography of the United States. Part one constitutes but one-fifth of the volume and treats such topics as economy, economic relations, home economies, the natural foundation of human economy, plant regions and resources, mineral and marine resources, industry and trade, economies and economic societies. The second part, embracing the bulk of the volume, opens with a discussion of the natural economic regions of the United States, of which the author specifies five more or less distinct areas. He then proceeds to a discussion of the leading industries and other important human activities in these various regions. The last two chapters deal with the foreign commerce of the United States and the economic work of the Federal Government. Pupils will find the text fairly easy reading, and there are numerous illustrations and maps to assist the reader in an understanding of the subject matter of the various chapters. At the close of the chapters are tables of questions which add materially to the usefulness of the book.

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Sociology

YET another addition to "Selections and Documents in Economics," edited by W. Z. Ripley, is "Readings in Social Problems," edited with an introduction by A. B. Wolfe (Ginn; $2.80). The tone of the series is good, and this volume does not lower the standard. The present number is not the equal, in learning and interpretative power, of the remarkable "Economic History of the United States," by the late Professor Callender, which, in some ways, stands in a class by itself. But the selections are as judicious and representative as could be expected. The main rubrics are: Problems of Population, Immigration, The Woman Problem, Marriage and Divorce, and The Negro Problem in the United States. Doubtless each user of a collection like this would himself have included other matter and excluded this and that material here reprinted. But it is a convenience to have such a selection at hand, even though parts of it represent a point of view that does not appeal to one. The topic of "Social Problems" is a ticklish one, if the hope of pleasing many people worth pleasing is cherished. The book is well made, like the rest of the series, and should have a considerable utility for classes in social science.

"PROGRESS and History" is a series of essays arranged and edited by F. S. Marvin and published in 1916 by the Oxford University Press ($3.75) and is a sequel to "The Unity of Western Civilization," published the year before. It was originally a set of lectures given in Birmingham. Where the former collection aimed at a statical view of the permanent unifying factors that have held Western civilization together, the present one exhibits a dynamical view of these forces in growth. The idea of progress covers the conception of increase of knowledge, increase of power, and "increase in our appreciation of the humanity of others. The first two thoughts, harmonized and directed by the third, may be taken to cover the whole field, and this volume to be merely a commentary upon them." There follow chapters on progress in prehistoric times, under Hellenism, and in the Middle Ages; in religion, morals, government, industry, art, science, and philosophy; and the last essay is on progress as an ideal of action. If any one is bold enough to define progress and try to support his definition by reference to periods and categories, he will appreciate the present attempt. These are in the main interesting lectures and are set before us in attractive physical form. Behind them, as behind most such publications of the present, hovers the preoccupation with the war and its issues.

Psychology

PERHAPS no textbook in psychology has been more widely used in American colleges in recent years than W. B. Pillsbury's "Elements." It is not a masterpiece; in fact, it is dull and full of crudities, but being compact it has been found serviceable in an introductory half-year course. The new "Fundamentals of Psychology" (Macmillan; $2 net) is both a bigger and a better book. It is designed for the use of students giving a full year to the subject. In general it follows the method and order of the earlier work, a characteristic feature being the large amount of space devoted to the description of the nervous system and the sense-organs, this occupying about a fifth of the volume. It does not, however, define psychology, as the "Elements" did, as the science of behavior, only to forget it in the sequel; the author states his own position as inclining to "functionalism," and the book, he says, is more concerned with what consciousness does than with what it is; but he does not define psychology at all. He believes that the content of the science is the same, whatever the point of view from which it is approached, and his book aims primarily to exhibit the content. Theories are discussed in abundance, but objectively; the chief interest is in facts, the ascertained results of observation and experiment. There is one theory, however, which underlies the whole treatment, the theory of the synapse. Reduced resistance at the synapse is held to explain not only all processes of learning, but also the consciousness of meaning. The neural pattern of interlacing brain-paths appears thus as the correlate of virtually the whole mental life. This view leads naturally to associationism. Needless to say, it is not the universally accepted view of physiologists, to whom the nature of brain activity is still largely a problem; it can, therefore, only tentatively be made the basis of a physiological psychology. The strength of this work of Pillsbury's is in its clear presentation of facts; it is an excellent handbook and book for supplementary reading. Whether it is well adapted as a textbook is more doubtful. Many teachers, at least, will think that a student who is able to give a whole year to the study should get more training in the methods of the science than is here provided for and that otherwise he is likely to be swamped by the very superabundance of the material.

WHATEVER the length of the course, most teachers probably would agree that the student should be impressed by the fact that psychology is an experimental science like any other, and should, if possible, obtain first-hand knowledge of the fact. Perhaps as good a method as any is that adopted at Harvard and elsewhere of general class instruction by textbook and lectures for half a year, followed by another half-year in the laboratory. The requirements of the latter part of such a course are admirably met by "An Elementary Laboratory Course in Psychology" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.75), the work of two Harvard instructors Herbert S. Langfeld and Floyd H. Allport; but their book may also be used to advantage by the private student, or in combination with a fuller lecture or textbook course. The experiments are carefully selected, clearly described, and fully illustrated; the arrangement is orderly and, what is much to the point, the bearings of each experiment are plainly indicated by skilfully worded questions. Many of them can be performed by the whole class. Moreover, the material required is for the most part simple and inexpensive. The publishers have coöperated with the authors in producing an attractive book. The usefulness of it would be enhanced by specific references to the literature at the end of each experiment, instead of leaving them to be sought out from the general reference to the most important books in the single half-page of the "foreword."

THE author of the little book on "How to Learn Easily," George Van Ness Dearborn (Little, Brown & Co.), is as well aware as the rest of us that there is no royal road to learning, and the apparent contradiction between the title and the epigram he makes when speaking of examinations, "Ease and E's go together," is not really in conflict

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with his intention, which is to give practical hints to the student on economical, if painstaking, methods of study. Much that he says on the subject in general and on such topics as observation and note-taking, the cultivation of the imagination, books, thinking, and examinations in particular, is sound and sensible, though to the mature student much will seem like platitude, while to the younger, the high-school pupil, for example, or the college freshman, the "scientific" medium for conveying the advice will seem like jargon. The author has a penchant for jaunty phrase and overweighted sentences. "Is Your 'Thinker' in Order?" is the title of one of the chapters. The suggestion that there are no sex differences in mind is repelled as follows: "For my part, however, I do not believe it, for I see, unless my vision be in vain, a forbiddingly large fraction removed from the human nature which we psychologists crave to understand were sexual mental differences smoothed out by some titanic and inchoate 'drive' of some futuristic suffragism, omnimilitant in its powers." What is wanted in a book having the object of this one is something less exuberant, something more simple and more direct.

Science

GENERAL

PROF. FREDERIC BARBER'S "First Course in General Science" (Holt; $1.25) is an encyclopædic book which seems rather better adapted to school reading and casual perusal than to class work, but which appears to have grown naturally out of an earlier treatise, bearing date of 1906. Its facts in regard to physics and vital phenomena are carefully stated, and the many applications of elementary principles to human welfare are ingeniously and clearly presented. Whether the range is not a little too wide in some directions, and hardly wide enough in others, is a matter of taste and judgment. A few of the illustrations appear to be superfluous, such, for instance, as the full-page reproduction of a vacuum cleaner working through three stories. And a great many other of the attractive pictures could have been dispensed with, thus cutting down the size and weight of the volume. It is to be said that the engravings are well executed and may prove helpful to the general reader.

MATHEMATICS

AN exceptionally valuable contribution to the literature of its kind is "First Year Mathematics" (C. E. Merrill Co.; 90 cents), by Messrs. Evans and Marsh, which is designed for the first year of high school. Among its notable features may be mentioned its emphasis upon the algebraic equation as a device for dealing with concrete problems stated in words, the prominence given to approximate computation, the liberal use of simple geometric material of the workaday kind, the omission of inessentials, the freshness and clarity of the treatment, and the excellent physical and mechanical make-up of the book.

THE "Common School Elementary Arithmetic" and the "Common School Advanced Arithmetic" (Laird & Lee), by Messrs Tallant and Umholtz, constitute a course running from the very beginnings of the subject to such advanced topics as cube root and the mensuration of solids. The books are perhaps a little over-confident regarding the excellence of their methods and a bit too redolent of pedagogical psychology. And there is, too, some excessive refinement in the matter of definitions. But they possess compensating qualities such as the happy mingling of the abstract and the concrete, and the close relation of their topics and exercises with common experience and practical needs.

PHYSICS

PROF. HENRY CREW has revised his textbook on "General Physics" (Macmillan; $2.75). As the first edition of the book was reviewed in this column, it is necessary only to note changes. While it was generally conceded that the treatment was sound, there were certain parts which were not satisfactory. For example, the treatment of electricity and magnetism was not orderly, and in this edition a decided improvement has been made. In its present form the standard of the book has been raised. There is still, however, the need of a better discussion of geometrical optics, and it is a question whether our students cannot stand a somewhat stiffer and more mathematical presentation than Professor Crew has adopted.

CHEMISTRY

FROM Ginn we have received a "Laboratory Manual of Agricultural Chemistry" (60 cents), by C. C. Hedges and W. T. Bryant. It is a little book of less than one hundred pages, one side of each leaf being left blank for note-taking. The directions for the sixty-three experiments are divided into seven groups, whose titles will serve to indicate the scope of the manual: Preparatory Quantitative Analysis, Chemical Analysis of Soil, Analysis of Fertilizers, Analysis of Insecticide and Fungicide, Analysis of Milk, Brief Sanitary Examination of Water. The book is designed for students who are taking a course in the theory of agriculture after having completed a year of general inorganic chemistry. The text contains only a bare outline of experimental procedure, the authors believing that everything else—directions for setting up apparatus, details of manipulation, and explanations of reasons for the steps taken—is better left to oral presentation in the lectures that are supposed to accompany the laboratory work. The directions are simple, direct, and clear.

AGENIAL and admirable account of what the science of chemistry has accomplished for the material well-being and amelioration of mankind is found in "Chemistry in the Service of Man" (Longmans; $1.60 net). Its author, Prof. Alexander Findlay, of the University of Wales, well known to chemists by his excellent textbooks on physical chemistry, presents his subject in a thoroughly readable and interesting manner. The book is based on a series of lectures delivered somewhat over a year ago at Aberdeen, the theme of which was chosen because of the fact, so acutely realized at the outbreak of the war, that Great Britain had "hitherto failed to recognize the intimate and vital dependence of our social and national prosperity on a knowledge and appreciation of the facts and principles of science, and not least of chemistry, and on their application in industry. All the industries of the country on which not only the comfort but even the life of the people depend—the great manufacturing industries and agriculture, the greatest industry of all—claim tribute of chem-

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istry." The author also says in his Preface: "But we must learn to appreciate science not merely on account of its utilitarian value as a means of increasing wealth and material prosperity. From the material point of view, doubtless, 'science is the knowledge most worth' . . . but we must beware of interpreting the usefulness of science in too narrow a spirit. The study of science possesses a cultural value which is quite independent of the utility of its applications; and as a means of coming into closer relations with Nature and the Infinite, science claims a fuller and more widespread recognition." After an introductory chapter in which the scope of chemistry is defined, and the older views of the constitution of matter are briefly discussed, the eleven succeeding chapters treat of: Combustion; Illuminants; Energy, Fuel, and Explosives; Cellulose and Its Products; Velocity of Reactions and Catalysis; Fixation of Nitrogen; Glass, Soda, and Soap; Electricity and Chemistry; The Colloidal State; Molecular Structure; Synthetic Chemistry. While some of these topics may sound rather abstruse and formidable to the non-chemical reader, he need not be alarmed; for such is the simplicity and clarity of the exposition that reading will bring understanding and a comprehension, in some degree, of certain of the most fascinating and promising domains of chemical research.

IN a booklet of 136 pages from the University of Chicago Press ($1), entitled "A Chemical Sign of Life," Dr. Shiro Tashiro gives a very interesting account of his recent studies in physiological chemistry. An electrical sign of life was discovered by Galvani when he found that animal tissues are a source of electricity; and recently the English physiologist, Waller, has introduced as a test and measure of life a particular kind of electrical response which he has discovered and named the "blaze" current. By it he can tell whether a dry seed is alive or not, without putting it in the ground to see if it will sprout. Waller also maintained the hypothesis that metabolism, accompanied by the production of carbon dioxide, is always going on in all living tissues. But as no direct evidence of chemical changes of this kind could be detected, physiologists generally settled down to the view that the fundamental changes concerned in the irritability of living matter were of a physical rather than of a chemical kind. The absence of direct evidence of the production of carbon dioxide might, however, well be due to the lack of sufficiently sensitive methods for its detection. This lack Tashiro has supplied by devising an apparatus that he calls a "biometer," by means of which one ten-millionth of a gram of carbon dioxide can be detected and estimated with accuracy. And with it he has demonstrated that all living things—nerve tissue, and dry seeds—are constantly giving off carbon dioxide. But the production of carbon dioxide from a tissue is not by itself a sufficient sign of life; for many chemical substances give off carbon dioxide spontaneously, and some, as in the case of linseed oil, show a striking parallelism to vital respiration. Living matter, however, responds to stimulation of any kind by an increase in the rate of production of the gas—"a sudden outburst of carbon dioxide"—while dead or anæsthetized tissues show no such increase. For instance, all kinds of nerves when stimulated give two to three times as much gas as when in their resting state. The author concludes that metabolism must occur in all things while living; metabolism involves respiration; and respiration is accompanied by the production of carbon dioxide. The measure of the quantity of life "is the amount of respiration or the amount of electrical response shown on stimulation."

AN address on "Our Analytical Chemistry and Its Future," by Dr. W. F. Hillebrand, which was delivered as the Chandler Lecture for 1916, is issued in pamphlet form by the Columbia University Press (25 cents). Dr. Hillebrand was chemist of the U. S. Geological Survey for twenty-eight years, and has been chief chemist of the Bureau of Standards since 1908, and he speaks from the fulness of his experience of the need of more careful and accurate training of our analytical chemists. He also advocates the establishment of an institution composed of a "body of well-salaried men under a director of the very highest ability as an analyst and of excellent tact and judgment," where comparative study of methods of analysis should be carried on and standard samples of many kinds should be prepared—samples of commercial articles for direct checking of analyses and pure substances for use in analytical work. The institution should establish close and sympathetic relations with the industries which it seeks to help and cooperate with them in every way possible. It "should also be court of last resort in disputes as to the value of commercial articles that are subject to chemical tests, not only as to the correct chemical composition, but also with regard to the causes for differing results reported by others; and, in general, be a clearing house of information and a source of inspiration in all that relates to chemical analysis." The need of such an institution is shown by the present unsatisfactory state of analytical practice in this country. Dr. Hillebrand has hoped the work that he outlines might be gradually developed in a department of the Bureau of Standards, but under the present conditions of Federal support he sees little prospect of a realization of his hope, unless accomplished by private endowment.

ALLEN ROGERS'S "The Elements of Industrial Chemistry" (Van Nostrand; $3 net) is an abridgment of the Manual of Industrial Chemistry, edited by him and reviewed in the *Nation* of May 6, 1915. Of the forty-nine chapters of the original work some have been omitted entirely and others amalgamated so that the chapter headings number twenty-seven and the book has about half the number of pages of the Manual. An omnibus chapter entitled "Elements and Inorganic Compounds: A Short Description of Over 300 Elements and Compounds," occupies 70 pages, and contains a list of about 200 (not 300) substances, most of which are less fully described than in the usual textbook of chemistry. In this chapter are included the eleven pages given to the chlorine industry, the four pages dealing with the alkali industry, and the three pages which the editor considers sufficient for iron. For some unexplained reason the metallurgy and industrial applications of the metals are, with the exception of the brief and wholly inadequate paragraphs on iron and a sentence or two about some of the other metals, wholly omitted. Rather more than half of the volume is given to the organic industries. The book is designed "to meet the needs of those teachers of the subject who find that the time at their disposal does not warrant the employment of an extended treatise," and may find a limited use under these conditions, though most teachers will probably choose to

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refer their students to the fuller and more satisfactory Manual, or to other and better proportioned outlines of industrial chemistry. The faults of the original, which were pointed out in the review alluded to above, are nearly all reproduced in this condensation; and the chief of these is the frequent failure to present the chemistry of the processes, the exposition being almost wholly devoted to the description of machinery and the details of treatment.

BOTANY

DURING the last three or four decades, the study of botany in most of our high schools and colleges has undergone a remarkable change. At the beginning of this period, students were initiated into the best methods of identifying the flowering plants of their neighborhood, and they were also taught the more interesting facts in regard to plant-life and behavior. But when advance in our knowledge of the so-called lower plants, the fungi, lichens, and algæ, had placed teachers of botany in possession of some information regarding these, a good deal of the newly acquired knowledge found its way into elementary treatises and forcibly displaced a large part of the matter of the older textbooks. For two reasons, the new subjects did not lend themselves to laboratory practice. The work demanded the use of the compound microscope and, moreover, there were few teachers qualified to conduct students over the new ground. But, in spite of these serious drawbacks, the newer methods commended themselves to many instructors, and the new type of textbook largely crowded out the old. To be sure, at the end of the new course, the pupil did not as a rule know the names of any of the plants around him, and this was and is a source of embarrassment; but, as compensation, he was supposed to have a wider outlook on the plant-kingdom in general. In two marked respects, the newer treatises differ from the old; they take into account some of the problems of heredity and show the bearing of recent work upon the relationships of plants, high and low. And, further, they give a more practical turn to physiological experiments. As a result, nearly all of the newer treatises serve as readable synopses of the present state of the science. For clear and comprehensive statements of the whole subject we recommend W. F. Ganong's "A Textbook of Botany for Colleges" (Macmillan; $2 net), and C. Stuart Gager's "Fundamentals of Botany" (Philadelphia: Blakiston; $1.50 net). Dr. Gager gives rather more space to the evolutionary side of the subject, while Dr. Ganong emphasizes the relation of function to structure. No reader will go far astray in his study of these two books; he will be safely led along lines of least resistance. Dr. Ganong has prepared his book with a special pedagogical object in view, which can best be stated in his own words.

> In conformity with its aim, the book gives more attention to the large and visible aspects of plant nature than to the minute and obscure. To the general student, the things he can see in the world, and will meet with again, are more important than those which lie remote from his path, though the specialist must know both near and remote, because both exist. Especially the book lays great emphasis upon interpretation, or the explanation of the "principle" of things, and the connections of botanical science with the general body of knowledge, and man's direct relations with plants. Indeed, the book may be described as an attempt to present and interpret the humanly important aspects of plant nature in the light of our modern scientific knowledge. While these are not the matters the specialist needs most to know, I cannot but think that he also will find advantage in entering upon his work through this broader portal.

Dr. Gager has supplemented his textbook by "A Laboratory Guide for General Botany" (Philadelphia: Blakiston; 90 cents net), which under a good teacher must prove of much service.

HORTICULTURE

THE indefatigable Prof. L. H. Bailey adds to his rural manuals the eighteenth edition of his book on pruning first published in 1898, "The Pruning Manual" (Macmillan; $2). The present volume of four hundred pages and nearly as many illustrations is much more than a mere set of rules on pruning; it is rather a study of the character of plants, and can be useful not only to him who has to prune, but to one who would know growing things intelligently. When Professor Bailey wrote his first book on pruning there was practically no careful study of the subject; some of his earlier statements he is quite ready to change, and he modestly looks forward some twenty years when another hand may write with greater certainty from experimental confirmation or disproof of many of our common practices. In the meantime much can be learned from the art and skill of individuals, their judgment of times and seasons and the nice balance of forces. Professor Bailey has made a valuable compilation of experience and knowledge so far obtained. He describes ways that have proved successful and those that have not, and he illustrates various systems which produce various results. The rosarian, for instance, who prunes severely produces few but splendid roses; he who would have an abundant display of smaller roses is more gentle with the knife; the slow-growing rose requires much cutting; the luxuriant grower will stand but little. The principles and practices of pruning fruit trees, the care and mending of ornamental trees, especially in the streets, the training of vines and shrubs, the complicated systems of growing grapes, ingenious devices for trimming the runners of strawberry plants, masks to protect the face of the pruner from wintry blasts, and a thousand and one useful bits of knowledge are all contained within this book.

FORESTRY

THE title of Prof. Frederick F. Moon's "The Book of Forestry" (Appleton; $1.75 net) should be changed to "*A* Book on Forestry," and even the less pretentious title could hardly prepare one for finding the book neither comprehensive nor thorough. It is a well-meaning attempt to interest the public in this most important subject, but it does not cover the ground in a satisfactory or methodical manner. There are certain pages which show that the author is conversant with his topic, and we hope, therefore, that he will some time give his pupils and the public a better book, with illustrations superior to those here attached to his scanty descriptions of the species. He would also do well to replace with something more valuable his useless full-page pictures of the Turpentine and Maple-sugar orchards.

BIOLOGY AND MEDICINE

THE third edition of Prof. Joseph McFarland's well-known book, "Biology: Medical and General" (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co.; $1.75 net), testifies to the high

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steem and demand in which this treatise is held by scientists. It contains chapters upon the Origin of Life, Ontogenesis, Structural Relationship, Parasitism, Infection and Immunity, Reproduction, Conformity to Type, and similar topics. As a textbook, however, the work is too complex, too detailed and comprehensive for college students in elementary biology; but it may be commended as a reference book for medical students. The author's discussions do not accord with the most recent work in heredity, regeneration, and other subjects in the field of modern biology, and the book as a whole is considerably behind the most recent advances in biological thought. Its illustrations are poor, and the paper is so inferior that the general appearance of the volume is disappointing, but Professor McFarland has done much good work, even though his publishers have not cooperated with him to the fullest extent.

THE first part of Prof. W. E. Castle's "Genetics and Eugenics: A Text Book for Students of Biology and a Reference Book for Animal and Plant Breeders," issued by the Harvard University Press, is devoted to the larger subject of genetics, especially in its relation to the theory of evolution, and the smaller second part is given over to the discussion of the "agencies under social control that may improve or impair the racial qualities of future generations, either physically or mentally." Most emphasis is laid, of course, upon the fundamental studies of Lamarck, Darwin, Weismann, and Mendel, but the very latest researches are also considered, and the reader will find here a summary of the subject that will put him fairly in touch with the best of contemporary thought on such matters as the inheritance of acquired characters, biometry, the mutation theory, unit characters, sex-linked and other kinds of linked inheritance, inbreeding and crossbreeding. It will be disappointing to many still to be told that "notwithstanding the fundamental nature of the problem of the inheritance of acquired characters, and all that has been said and done to solve it, it still remains an unsolved problem." The author's leanings can be surmised, however, from his conclusion that "evolution guided by the environment must be in some measure at least a reality" and from his statement that "the truth lies neither in the extreme Lamarckian view that all acquired characters are inherited nor in the extreme Weismannian view that no extraneous influences modify the germ-plasm, but somewhere in between." As regards human inheritance, Professor Castle agrees neither with Pearson, who denies Mendelianism, nor with Davenport and Plate, who are enthusiastic for unit characters, but adopts a more eclectic view. The possibilities and prospects of breeding a better human race are briefly discussed.

Communications

ELECTIONS WHILE YOU WAIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Possibly some of your readers in Eastern educational circles have forgotten, or never knew, that in some Western State universities, agricultural colleges, and minor institutions the tenure of office is by the year, and everybody from the head down goes out at commencement unless reëlected.

Under this condition it is no doubt best that the election should be a mere formality, with few questions raised; as an interesting inside glimpse I quote from a personal letter written by a gentleman connected with one of these State boards of regents. After describing some difficult railway connections as he was proceeding to the regents' meeting, he continues:

> We reached ———— about 3 P. M. From that time until 7:30 we worked pretty steadily, electing five faculties and passing on two sets of plans for buildings. We got out at 8:20 P. M. on the night train.

SPECTATOR.

West Lafayette, Ind., April 19

THE PATER NOSTER PLAY

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The current conception of the Pater Noster play formerly maintained at York, Beverley, and Lincoln is that it was the first of the moralities and was somehow a presentation of the conflict between the virtues and vices for the soul of man, a topic made familiar by the "Psychomachia" of Prudentius. When a guild of the Lord's Prayer was formed in York in 1389 to perpetuate this play, it was recited in a preamble to a return of the ordinances that in it "all manner of vices and sins were held up to scorn, and the virtues were held up to praise." A computus roll of the guild for 1399, formerly in possession of the late Canon Raine, mentions expenses about a play of sloth (*circa ludum Accidiae*). Further information derived from the records of Beverley was furnished by Mr. A. F. Leach in the *Furnivall Miscellany* in an article entitled "Some English Plays and Players"; also certain significant references to the Pater Noster play at Lincoln. Mr. Leach quotes an entry from a corporation minute-book for 1469 which shows that at Beverley there were eight pageants in the Pater Noster play, one for each of the Seven Deadly Sins and an additional one "Viciose"; also that the play was processional like the Corpus Christi play, was supported by the craft guilds, who are assigned so many to each pageant, and was acted at practically the same set of stations about the town as the Corpus Christi play.

It is easy to see from this that the name of the play came from the idea in mediæval moralizing literature that each of the seven supplications of the Pater Noster was a means of protection against one of the Seven Deadly Sins; but it is not easy to see how the theme of the *Psychomachia* could have been rendered processionally and cyclically in a drama. In Prudentius we have a series of Homeric debates between the single figures of *Ira* and *Patientia*, *Superbia* and *Humilitas*, and so forth. The theme in this form is, moreover, elsewhere unknown to the literature of the morality play; nor do any of the other known morality themes fit in with the outlines of the Beverley performance.

The references from Lincoln, small in number though they are, suggest another solution of the mystery of the Pater Noster play. Mr. Leach brought to light among the rolls of Bishop Lexington's episcopal register in the Bishops' Registry a roll containing a list of mayors and bailiffs with local annals. Among the entries are notices of the performance of plays. The Corpus Christi play is mentioned twice; in the 21st of Richard II, the 12th of Henry IV, and the 3d and the 35th of Henry VI *Ludus de Pater Noster* appears; and other plays as follows: 20 Henry VI, 1441-2, *Ludus Sancti Laurencii;* 26 Henry VI, 1447-8, *Ludus Sancte Susanne;* 31 Henry VI, 1452-3, *Ludus de Kyng Robert of*

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Cesill; 34 Henry VI, 1455-6, *Ludus de Sancta Clara.* Canon Rock mentions a Lincoln *Ludus de Sancto Iacobo,* apparently quoting the same or a similar document. There is something formal about this list of plays; the saints mentioned here, except St. Lawrence, are not Lincoln saints; and the subjects taken throughout illustrate resistance to various ones of the Seven Deadly Sins. King Robert of Sicily struggled with pride, and it is proper to regard that play as a miracle play. St. Clara overcame gluttony; St. Susanna, lechery; St. Lawrence, avarice; and without too great a stretch of the imagination, St. James may be said to be a fitting illustration of successful battle against wrath. May not these saints' plays be several parts of the Pater Noster play?

Further slight support for this suggestion comes from York. Professor Manly calls my attention to a play of St. Dionysius. In 1455 Robert Lasingby leaves to the fabric of his church of St. Dionysius in York the play-book (*ludum oreginale Sancti Dionisii*). This may have no connection with the Pater Noster play, but St. Denis may be said to illustrate the warfare against envy. I find also on the same page of the second volume of the *Testamenta Eboracensia* (page 117) that William Revetour left in 1446 to the guild of St. Christopher *quemdam librum de Sancto Jacobo Apostolo in sex paginis compilatum,* a phrase which I take to mean compiled or composed, not in six pages (which would be nonsense), but in six pageants. This is interesting in any case as showing the division of a saint's play into pageants, and it might of course belong to the Creed play; but meantime it seems to support the Lincoln reference. Finally, when the guilds were nearly all suppressed at York, the last two performances of the Pater Noster play in 1558 and 1572 were in the hands of the still unsuppressed guild of St. Anthony, and for the sake of completing the list it might be hazarded as a final guess that St. Anthony was the seventh and last subject, since his life seems to illustrate with great aptness resistance to that spiritual slackness which was known as sloth. In working out the connection between the saints and the various sins I have had the advantage of using an unpublished Master's dissertation at the University of Minnesota by Miss Elizabeth Bragdon on the subject of the English Miracle Play.

HARDIN CRAIG

University of Minnesota, March 10

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